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BRITISH COLUMBIA AND BRITISH INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

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The political status of a province in the Canadian confederation is clearly defined in the British North America act and relates solely to matters of property and private rights. It is not strictly permissible to speak of British Columbia and British international affairs, for the reason that provinces, as provinces, have no international relations. The people of British Columbia are affected by external affairs only as Canadians and through their local forms of administration have no rights of interference. In such matters the federal authorities are very jealous of even advice from local authorities. It is tendered sometimes by resolution of the legislature and is only effective to the extent in which it may be regarded as indicative of local sentiment. If it should happen that the local administration is in political accord with the federal administration—that is, in respect to conservatives and liberals, as parties are constituted—the former will naturally exercise a much stronger influence with the latter in matters affecting a particular province than if the opposite was the case. This is especially true if the local leader of an administration happens to be, as in the case in British Columbia at the present time, a man of outstanding and commanding position. Sir Richard McBride, the prime minister of the Pacific province, is in political accord with the Right Hon. R. L. Borden, prime minister of Canada, and, for instance, has taken a very positive stand on the question of naval defense, now agitating the whole of the Dominion of Canada, in so far as it relates to the defense of the Pacific coast. It is not too much to assume that the attitude of the former has had a good deal to do with the attitude of the latter in respect to that phase of his naval policy, an outline of which he has just presented to the House of Commons.

While, however, it is true that British Columbia *qua* British Columbia can have no international status or interests, there is a sense in which any province is interested in and affected by inter-

national issues of the empire. Each province, by reason of physical or economic conditions, has, or may have, interests affected by considerations of an international character, peculiarly its own. These, in a country so wide in extent and diversified in resources, can be easily imagined. A treaty affecting fishery rights would naturally affect the maritime provinces in a special way and would have only an academic or purely national interest for the people of Ontario, or the provinces of the Middle West. Or by reason of some special feature, or purpose, of the treaty, it might have a special interest for the people of one coast and not for those of another. A tariff may rest more heavily upon the people of one province than upon those of another. A naval programme has a keener interest for those who live on the Atlantic or the Pacific seaboard than for those who occupy the interior parts of the country. It is in this sense that the caption of the article here being indited has been chosen.

British Columbia is peculiarly affected by, and interested in, several international issues of great moment. Although, as stated, it is a province of Canada, it has interests which are *sui generis* in a degree greater perhaps than is true of any other province of Canada. It is, in this sense, so far apart from the rest of Canada, that in Great Britain particularly the expression is often used, "Canada and British Columbia." It is true that the Middle West, on account of its extent and the homogeneity of its physical conditions, is essentially unlike other parts of the Dominion and is so to speak a law unto itself in the matter of political and economic requirements; but the very uniformity of conditions greatly lessens if it does not indeed simplify the problems which confront the people of the prairies. British Columbia, on the other hand, by the diversity of its resources, the ruggedness of its surface and the isolation created by its mountains, by the long extent of its serrated coast line, its position on the western seaboard of the Dominion, and its geographical relation to the Orient, multiplies its problems and widens the scope of its interests. Its coast is separated from the rest of Canada not only by one range but by ranges of mountains and the province is segregated by the Middle West from the political and as yet the potential center of Canada's activities. It has characteristics similar in most respects to those of Washington, Oregon and California and is strikingly differentiated in nearly all its aspects from eastern Canada just as the states mentioned are from eastern America, presenting differences of climate,

atmosphere, flora, fauna, economic requirements, resources, etc., with which all students of conditions in their respective countries are familiar. If the divinity which shapes our ends had been guided by considerations which nature alone would suggest we should have had, not two, but three or four nations in the North American continent. Following the lines of similar environment and least resistance, the boundaries of these nations would have been coincident with those of three or four distinct natural zones—the Pacific, or Cordilleran, the Middle West, or prairies, and the country east of them to the Atlantic, the latter, of course, being capable of a further subdivision. It was upon conditions suggested by physiography that Goldwin Smith founded his theory of a single American nation, because his philosophy could not reconcile itself with a successful conflict against geography in the attempt made by Canada to remain a political entity, more especially as the people inhabiting both Canada and the United States were mainly of one language and of one blood. We need not stop to discuss the factors which have intervened so far, to upset the successful operations of his theory. As psychic forces are greater than material forces in the evolution of destiny, so there are elements in nationality more subtle and elusive of control than those contained in purely physiographical or even ethnographical conditions.

The principal differences between the Pacific divisions of Canada and of the United States at present are those created by exploitation and land development. The Pacific states, owing to the discovery of gold in California in 1849 and to railway construction, were earlier in the race and have made greater advances in the same time. The social substratum of the population and the character of the political institutions have also had something to do with the general divergences observable. We have Biblical authority and the authority of experience for the statement that as man thinketh so is he, and this is true in the collective as well as in the individual sense. Similarity of conditions, however, in the long run will produce a somewhat general similarity of results, and the problems of British Columbia, political and otherwise, are not unlike those of the country immediately to the south. If the Panama Canal is of special interest to the seaports of British Columbia so it is to those of Washington, Oregon, and California; if the yellow peril menaces British Columbia so also it does the Pacific coast states; if reciprocity would benefit or

injure the former it should, according to circumstances, have some corresponding effect in the latter; if British Columbia requires naval protection on the Pacific, the exigencies of the situation created by war from whatever source are equally great along the coast south of the boundary line. Broadly speaking, these are the problems of an international character which are uppermost in the minds of the people of British Columbia and which politically have had the greatest amount of attention of recent years. I, therefore, propose to discuss them in the following order suggested by their priority as public issues:

1. The tariff on a basis of reciprocity.
2. The dangers of Oriental invasion.
3. The alternative route to eastern Canada, Great Britain and the continent of Europe afforded by the construction of the Panama Canal.
4. The requirements of naval defense on the British Pacific.

In what follows, I do not profess to offer solutions solely in accord with local sentiment; because the exigencies of politics, in its restricted sense, do not always suggest the wisest remedies to be adopted and very often obscure the atmosphere for the better understanding of the merits of the disputes involved. I shall, however, endeavor to present as fairly as I can the nature of local sentiment in each case.

First, as to the tariff: That question is, I was going to say, as old as the hills—the mountains for which British Columbia is famous. In the very early days, Victoria, the capital of the colony of Vancouver Island, was a free port and the Hudson's Bay Company, then in control, was fully imbued with the free trade sentiments of Great Britain. Curiously enough, Sir James Douglas, governor, in his "speech from the throne" in the first legislature in 1856, made reference to the impending reciprocity treaty between Canada and the United States and expressed the hope that Vancouver Island (then an independent crown colony) would be included in its provisions. Of course, Vancouver Island then had only about two hundred settlers, mostly servants of the Hudson's Bay Company, or its auxiliary, the Puget Sound Agricultural Company; and Victoria itself was only a stockaded fort. There was a nice academic touch to this sentiment which does credit to the modernity of a governor of a fur-trading colony, born as it was in the shadow of a great wilderness,

and still in its puling infancy. The colony of British Columbia on the mainland, which was established in 1858, had a tariff, and after the union of the two colonies in 1866 the tariff wall was still maintained. One of the big issues at the time of Confederation with Canada in 1871 was the tariff, especially in respect to agricultural products. The British Columbia schedule was higher than that of Canada. The colony then was and, as a province, has continued to be protective in sentiment. Hence in the reciprocity campaign of 1911, British Columbia was solidly against the proposed pact, not only from sentimental but from economic reasons. Sentimentally, the people of British Columbia are British almost to a man. From an economic point of view, they are very un-British. That is to say, they have not imbibed British traditional love of free trade. The situation economically can be explained very briefly. Our most important industry, prospectively, at least, is fruit growing. It is commercially still in the stage of infancy, as compared with the fruit-growing industry south of the line, which is thoroughly established, splendidly organized, and highly productive. It can be easily seen that the Pacific coast states, with their relative superiority as to present position, under reciprocity, could absolutely control the market in fruits, green and preserved, from Vancouver to Winnipeg and greatly hamper the development of the industry in British Columbia, an industry now mainly dependent upon the Middle West for its market and requiring at least another ten years to catch up with its southern competitors. Even at present a very large percentage of the requirements of the fruit market of Vancouver and Victoria is supplied from the American side. What is true of fruit is also true of agricultural produce generally and it is absolutely certain that under the proposed arrangement the commission houses of Seattle, Portland and San Francisco would be supreme on this coast and, in respect to much of the business done there, in the Middle West as well. If the farmers of the prairies had been given access to the doubtful benefits of the markets of one hundred million people, they would have lost the market in British Columbia in which they have had a monopoly in certain products and which has been more profitable to them than any other market as yet available.

Our mineral products were not affected by the proposed arrangement, except very slightly in the matter of coal, notwithstanding that it professed to be a pact based upon an interchange of natural

products. The export of lead ores to the United States free of duty would have been of substantial advantage to the mining community; and it was to compensate the miners of the southern interior for the loss of the United States market that the Dominion government some years ago placed a bounty upon the production of lead in order to encourage the industry and to keep the silver-lead mines open. With reference to coal, the Pacific state ports, and especially San Francisco, have been the principal market for Vancouver Island coal from the very outset, and of recent years the smelters of Idaho, Montana and Washington have been getting their supply of coke from British Columbia ovens. The removal of duty on coal would have been an advantage to producers and consumers in both countries, and why the duties on the minerals referred to were not proposed to be taken off in accordance with the general features of the scheme remains inscrutable. Free coal for California would, as a matter of course, have carried with it free oil for British Columbia for fuel purposes.

Naturally, the supposition would be that British Columbia would have been greatly benefited by obtaining a free market in the United States for fish and fishery products and timber and timber products. But here conditions not theories govern the situation. In regard to fisheries products, except in the matter of salmon canning, Americans control the supply out of our waters as it is. The New England Fish Company, doing business in British Columbia ports, has a practical monopoly of the halibut fisheries, industrially and commercially. The halibut industry has for some time assumed very important proportions and the removal of the duties would simply have facilitated the operations of that company without any special advantage to the fishermen of this province. The New England fish combine controls the fish market of eastern America, and outside companies have but little chance of doing business in competition. American boats fish along the entire coast of British Columbia, as often within as without the three-mile limit, and by making Seattle headquarters have a very big advantage over local fishermen. In timber and timber products, on the face of it, the case would seem still stronger in favor of reciprocity, inasmuch as certain classes of lumber are already admitted to Canada duty free; but in my humble opinion, at least, the timber products of British Columbia have but little prospect of enlarging their mar-

ket in the United States in competition with the mills of the Puget Sound, which, under the proposed arrangement, would have had British Columbia logs to draw upon for a supply of raw material. This is demonstrable in a practical way under existing conditions. The mills of British Columbia, for instance, apparently have equal opportunities in the export markets of the world; but it is a fact that for one ship loading lumber in British Columbia waters for foreign parts at least half a dozen load in Puget Sound ports. If this be the case in regard to markets abroad in which there are equal opportunities and advantages, how much truer it would be in the home market of the United States. Washington lumbermen undersell British Columbia millmen in Winnipeg and other points in the Canadian Middle West. They have taken large railway contracts even in British Columbia away from their British Columbia rivals. This is the result, as I have already intimated, of a condition not a theory. The sawmilling industry in the Puget Sound country is more highly organized and specialized, and under modern methods the more highly organized and specialized an industry becomes the better chance it has, even in the face of tariff obstructions. With the depletion of timber in Washington and Oregon, British Columbia logs are more and more in demand, a fact which as far back as 1903-4 induced the British Columbia government to place an embargo upon their export. This is a general condition in Canada now, except in respect to timber on federal limits, and were it not for that saving clause (the only clause of the reciprocity treaty left intact in the United States act of confirmation) the mills of the latter country would very soon exhaust our raw material and ship back the finished product to Canada in competition with her own mills. It would not have paid Canada in the long run, and on the other hand would have been disastrous to her best interests.

Moreover, it should be pointed out that a great deal of fallacy has existed and still exists about the effect of free interchange of products of nations in lowering prices to the consumer and in dealing a blow at the trusts. I am not a protectionist in theory and only believe in protective tariffs in so far as they enable Canada or the United States to develop industries under the most favorable conditions in the face of the competition from more highly organized and older established industries of other countries. I believe in Canada for Canadians in so far as Canada can be benefited by such a policy.

All policies and theories are subject to modifications according to the actual facts to be faced. A scientific tariff is one that, as nearly as possible, adjusts itself to the economic requirements of the country, being either high or low or not at all as conditions dictate, our own general prosperity and the weal of the greatest number being the object to be kept steadily in view; but we can easily see that such a policy may be made and is being made the subject of serious abuse both in Canada and the United States. Now, the fallacy referred to is that trusts in America may be regulated or controlled by tearing down the tariff barriers between the two countries. Trusts in Canada and elsewhere have been created as the result of modern facilities of transportation and intercommunication—railways, steamships and telegraph lines and general reduction in postal rates. By these means the area of the producers' operations has been extended throughout the forty-eight states of the Union among which there is free trade. The same is true of Canada, with its nine provinces. By the aggregation and combination of capital and the superior organization of industry and commerce and finance in connection therewith a single firm or combination of firms comes to control the entire area in the line of its particular production or sale. If you sweep away the tariff obstructions to trade between Canada and the United States you simply extend the area of trust operations, and instead of forty-eight states you have forty-eight states and nine provinces. The greater force in commerce and industry, as in war, must prevail, and the danger to Canada in reciprocity was that the trusts would have swallowed up the continent as a whole. Canada must inevitably become Americanized in trade and commerce. Under reciprocity, for instance, within five or ten years the commercial end of the fruit, fishery and timber industries in British Columbia would be in the hands of Americans. Political control follows commercial control as certainly as night follows day, and President Taft spoke truly when he said that through reciprocity Canada would become "an adjunct" of the United States. Canada, and especially British Columbia, realized that fact at the outset and rejected reciprocity. It was not an expression of ill-will; it was a demonstration of the desire of Canadians to work out their own destiny in their own way, as the people of the United States have done, without entangling commercial alliances that might divorce their future from the line of British affiliations upon which

they long ago set their hearts, and towards which all their aspirations tend. So far, therefore, as the general result was concerned, national sentiment and national economics went hand in hand and cannot be disassociated. To preserve their allegiance to the Empire and to achieve their ambition to become full partner in its affairs, Canadians must maintain their commercial independence. Canada does not object to doing business with the United States; but it wants to do business under conditions which will best further its own interests and those larger interests which lie in the direction of imperial federation.

Alien immigration and especially the immigration of Orientals has always been a question of vital interest in British Columbia. Her problems in that respect are unique in Canada. The opposition to Chinese had its genesis with the labor organizations many years ago. It later extended to the Japanese and the Hindus. Doubtless the feeling in the ranks of labor on this subject was considerably influenced by what occurred in the Pacific coast states and by the agitation there which led to the total exclusion of the Chinese. As population increased in the towns of British Columbia and in the mining and lumbering camps the labor unions increased in number and influence, until politicians felt bound to give effect to their demands, if not fully at least substantially—not that politicians in their heart of hearts were in sympathy with the movement or cared much about the "heathen Chinese." To them activity in opposition to the Oriental was the easiest road to popular favor. In one way and another antagonism to all forms of Asiatic immigration has become crystallized into a settled policy of resistance. No public man in the province dare raise his voice in its favor, unless perchance he happen to represent a truly rural constituency, and even then his sentiments would be quoted against the party with which he was allied and would as surely be repudiated by his political associates. For forty years anti-Chinese or anti-Asiatic resolutions, or legislation in some form has appeared in the provincial parliament as regularly as parliament sat. In other words, the question has proved to be a robust plant of unfailing bloom. At an early stage the legislature assumed the right to impose a head tax upon Chinese, but the measure was promptly vetoed by the Dominion authorities as being *ultra vires*. In 1886, the federal parliament adopted this method of restriction by imposing a tax

of fifty dollars per head, with little practical effect. This was subsequently raised to one hundred dollars per head, also without materially checking immigration. Then, as the result of strenuous agitation in British Columbia, the head tax was raised to five hundred dollars, with the effect for a time of practical exclusion. These restricted measures had curious results. From long before Confederation, housewives, farmers, millmen and others depended upon Chinese labor to a considerable extent. It was obtainable according to age at from five dollars to twenty-five dollars per month. Later on railways and salmon canneries employed Chinese extensively, and they competed with white labor as tailors and in factories. In fact, they were in competition with white labor in all kinds of work.

The effect of restriction was to raise the price of wages among the Chinese each time it was increased, until after the five hundred dollars was imposed, the Chinamen, secure in the labor market against more Chinamen, advanced their own wages by some method of combination until the scale now runs from twenty-five dollars to fifty dollars and sixty dollars per month. This lucrative wage attracted the cupidity of the Japanese, upon whom there was and could be no legal embargo, and they increased very rapidly in numbers in a very short space of time. Then, five or six years ago, Hindus, similarly attracted, also came in large numbers. They were principally Sikhs, discharged soldiers, and, as British subjects, could not very well be objected to. A temporary depression in 1907, owing to the slump in the money markets and the failure of crops in the Middle West, brought about a slackness in the labor market, and feeling against these importations culminated in riots. The Chinese, except that they were generally in demand, as a problem, were comparatively easily dealt with; but with the Japanese and Hindus the case was quite different. The proud Japanese nation resented discrimination against its subjects. In the case of Japanese, therefore, delicate diplomacy had to be resorted to and on the grounds of the well-being of both races, the Japanese government voluntarily agreed to limit the numbers to come to Canada each year to a comparatively harmless minimum. In the case of the Hindus, it was hard to find justification for exclusion that would satisfy Hindu, shall I say, prejudices. At the time they began to come in numbers, the state of unrest in India was giving the British

government great anxiety. For a few representatives of the British Empire to exercise sovereignty over 150,000,000 of racially alien peoples, and then the rights of citizenship to be denied to these peoples on British territory elsewhere, was what the Englishman would call "a little thick," and the two facts taken together required some effort to make them fit in with Hindu logic, not to refer to the feat involved of skating on very thin moral ice. Ethically it could not stand the test of metaphysical treatment; but all matters of ethics to be reasonably applicable must conform in practice to the requirements of common sense, and the problem really resolves itself, in the final analysis, into, not a question of ethical fiddling, but the primal law of necessity—self-preservation.

An Oriental standard of living, of sociology, inbred by the pressure on each other, of generations of millions of population, cannot be grafted upon an Occidental stock nurtured in the free, open, elbow-room atmosphere of the West without serious injury to the latter. Admit the principle of unrestricted immigration from the teeming fields of Asia, upon the grounds of morality and pure ethics, and you commit the greater crime of swamping the white man in his own territory. If it be held that this is a case in which the law of the survival of the fittest should hold, it must also be held that it involves a principle which provokes the primal instinct of resistance of the white man as an animal to live as he has lived and is wont to live. To races of diametrically opposed standards and culture the law must be to remain each within his own biological sphere, or the ultimate result must be disaster to one or both races. If Great Britain disregards the theory on Indian soil, it is because she proceeds on the principle of ruling the country for the country's good, a country which otherwise would be delivered over to the woes of internecine tribal strife, and incidentally for the commercial profits of occupation, the possibilities of which were revealed to the early semi-sovereign trading corporations of gentlemen adventurers—as she rules Egypt and large areas of the African continent, and as she once ruled Canada, Australasia and Cape Colony. With these motives, however, we have nothing to do. British Columbia has asserted the right to be essentially a white man's country and the right extends equally against all Asiatic races which stand geographically a menace to her on the thither shores of the Pacific.

To speak frankly, the Japanese are a greater danger and the least desirable of the three racial elements to which the province is opposed and that because of their enterprise and aggressiveness, their determination to get a foothold on equal terms with the Anglo-Saxon, a desire, which by the way, the Japanese government resists on the part of the citizens of other nations in Japan. In their public policy the Japanese nation is the perfect embodiment of the principle of Japan for the Japanese and as much of the rest of the world as possible. Their moral standards, however justifiable from the Japanese standpoint, are not ours and in matters of daily contract are not reliable. Their word is not dependable and their motives always ulterior. They have the gloss of politeness and extreme courtesy, a Frenchified exterior of conduct; but remove ever so little of cuticle and you reveal the Tartar. It has often been remarked that their absorption of western civilization is only skin deep. The Chinese, on the other hand, are as a rule industrious, honest, faithful to their employers, cleanly in person, and without desire to assimilate or to establish themselves in the land. While in unlimited competition, on account of the very qualities I have enumerated, they are the natural enemies of the white laboring interests, they are admirably useful as servants, as economic machines, and I, personally, always have held that their free admission for the restricted purposes of domestic service and farm labor would be highly beneficial and advantageous to the country. It is legally and constitutionally practicable and feasible to permit and regulate this without infringing upon the rights, prerogatives or advantages of white labor, which, if class prejudice did not intervene, would be distinctly benefited. It imparts to the white laborer immediately the status of aristocracy in his field. No one in his senses would advocate the reduction of the standard now enjoyed by organized labor, because the wealth of the unit is the true standard by which to measure the wealth of the nation; but one of our greatest economic problems in the province of British Columbia, and a similar condition obtains in Washington and Oregon, is the development of the land, the essential element of which is cheap labor and effective mechanical devices. Land clearing, the handling of fruit, dairying specifically, and small farming generally, for which agriculturally the province is particularly adapted and upon which lines it must evolve successfully, demand plentiful

labor at low prices at all seasons of the year, which white labor, so far as my experience and observation go, is neither anxious nor desirous of affording. Nor do I think it particularly desirable that the white laborer should become a hewer of wood and a drawer of water for his white fellows. It is contrary to the genius of the Anglo-Saxon race.

With Chinese labor to assist our wives, who demand every consideration in a country of high prices, and to work in our fields and do the drudgery of development, skilled white labor, male and female, has a wide scope for usefulness and profit, greatly enlarged in consequence of what willing and satisfied Chinese can make possible. Of what use, however, in discussing the proposal! The iron, relentless hand of the politician will smash every such suggestion upon its very first appearance. The Hindu, newly imported, with his skinful of prejudice and traditional occultism and caste, is impossible. Physically and mentally he has qualities which in the second generation would perhaps beneficially assimilate with the white race; but the process is fraught with danger. Undoubtedly, the yellow or brown or dusky peril of the Orient is imminent and economically is real and menacing. British Columbia and Canada are right in resisting at the outset the danger which may some day have to be faced on sea and land in military and economic warfare. One necessary precaution, apart from the economic situation of industrial and commercial competition from the Orient, is to prevent a foothold being obtained now or at any time in the future on this coast. The danger is in numbers not in individuals and a half a million whites in a territory so large as British Columbia would be as one against a host. A million or two in the Middle West would have just as little chance against a horde of Asiatics. The safe principle is the recognition of racial rights within racial or biological spheres, each race being equal and dominant in its own territory. The proper solution of the immigration problem in respect to Japan is based upon reciprocal entry of citizens back and forth. In this way, national pride is not wounded and equal rights are maintained without loss of national dignity.

The effect of the Panama Canal on the general trend of the world's trade and commerce no one has been able to definitely predict. The outcome is quite problematical. That it will be revolutionary in character no one can doubt. It is an alternative route

to the Suez Canal and means cutting the earth in half to reach the Pacific Ocean by a more direct route. Its completion may fairly be regarded as epochal and it means a general readjustment of conditions and a re-partition of trade as between East and West. In British Columbia, in common with other portions of the Pacific coast, expectations have been very high and the contemplated early opening of the Panama Canal has greatly influenced the policy of the local and federal governments with respect to increasing harbor accommodation and providing ample transportation facilities. The Panama Canal from a provincial point of view, I cannot help thinking will not be an unmixed good, a possibility which people in their enthusiasm are apt to overlook in their calculations. Its effects, as already indicated, must in any event be problematical, but there are several things which must appear as obviously inevitable. First, a very considerable amount of Oriental traffic, instead of going to and fro by way of Vancouver or Seattle or Portland or San Francisco, as in the past, will pass direct from points of shipment to points of destination, without breaking bulk and at a cheaper rate than would be possible by rail and water. This will be true of all traffic regarding which speed is not an element of advantage, either as to the carriage under contract in which time is the essence, or the saving of interest on the value of expensive consignments. This new condition will obviously apply to shipments to and from Australasia. It is possible, of course, that railways will reduce their rates on through shipments to meet the competition, but even then it only seems possible in a limited way. Another result will be that the manufactures of eastern Canada, the United States and of Europe will be brought into closer competition with local manufactures all along the Pacific coast. This may have the result of discouraging local industrial development in certain lines—for instance, in the manufacture of iron and steel, although on the other hand it may make the conditions more favorable by equalizing the factors as between East and West. It is always very difficult to say what new factors may enter into a new field, and the Pacific from this time forth must be regarded for practical purposes a new sphere of commercial action.

Taking the anticipated advantages, about which there seems to be but little doubt, the Panama Canal should greatly stimulate the development of industries based on all natural resources, such as timber, fish, fruit, and certain minerals. In timber, particularly,

the export trade should be greatly increased to all parts of the eastern hemisphere, and if the United States in its own interests should decide to permanently remove the duty on rough lumber and pulp, the market in the eastern half of America for British Columbia timber should be of immense proportions. The demand for paper and pulp in the United States is daily increasing and the supply of pulp wood is daily becoming a matter of greater concern. The pulp industry on the British Columbia coast is just beginning to take shape, but with the Panama Canal and a free market in the United States there should be practically no limit to the demand for its products. By modern methods, it is entirely possible to ship fish and fruit in a fresh state in cold storage to Great Britain and the continent through the canal at all seasons of the year. Shipments of halibut and salmon could be laid down in Boston and New York via the Isthmus at a cheaper rate than across the continent by rail in iced boxes. A good deal of mineral matter and possibly certain classes of ores might go the same route to refineries and smelters in Great Britain and elsewhere.

From a Canadian and also from a British Columbia point of view, the most important effect of the canal will be the transport of grain from the Middle West of Canada to the markets of Great Britain and the continent. All our railway experts before the railway commission have declared that grain cannot be carried at present through Pacific ports around the Horn to the old country in competition with the established routes eastward, and we may assume that they know their own business best. The completion of the canal, however, will reduce the distance from Vancouver to Liverpool approximately from 15,000 miles to 8,836 miles, and ought to reduce the present ocean rates by at least a third; or, in other words, it makes Vancouver and Victoria from 23 to 25 days nearer to Liverpool by steamer. It is estimated—I am now taking the figures prepared by the Vancouver Board of Trade—that from points of the Middle West in Saskatchewan and Alberta west of Moosejaw on the Canadian Pacific Railway the rate via Panama will not exceed 22 cents per bushel of grain to Liverpool, while the present cost of transportation from similar points via Fort William and the Atlantic is from 25 to 26 cents in summer and as high as 36 cents in the winter. It is obvious that from the almost coincident completion of the canal the Grand Trunk Pacific and the Canadian Northern Pacific Railway

to the coast, there is room almost immediately thereafter for an enormous traffic in grain, especially in wheat, taking advantage of an alternative route to Europe, not unlikely to attain to a volume of 150,000,000 bushels of grain per annum within the next decade. During the past three years Vancouver exported approximately 750,000 bushels of wheat and 500,000 bushels of oats mainly to Mexico and the Philippine Islands. A very small experimental business only has been done with China and Japan, notwithstanding that Puget Sound ports, Portland and San Francisco export large quantities of wheat there. This is due to the fact that the Oriental market demands soft wheat, or pastry, flour and is unused to the hard wheat flour of the prairies. Whether that condition will change in time one cannot say, but in any event our big market is in Great Britain and the continent, to which places Tacoma and Portland have shipped largely, and in 1911 as high as 12,000,000 bushels. The production of grain in the Middle West is increasing enormously per annum and reached 400,000,000 bushels in 1911. So great indeed is the volume of grain grown that it cannot all be shipped in one season through Canadian channels. During 1911 over 25,000,000 bushels of Canadian wheat found an outlet through Buffalo and New York to the ocean. The following distances by rail give an idea of saving on grain freights possible over the western route:

Calgary to St. John.....	2,637 miles
Calgary to Fort William.....	1,260 "
Calgary to Vancouver.....	644 "
Edmonton to Fort William.....	1,451 "
Edmonton to Vancouver.....	735 "
Moosejaw to St. John.....	2,396 "
Moosejaw to Vancouver.....	1,085 "

It will be seen, therefore, what intense interest the people of British Columbia have in the opening of the Panama Canal apart altogether from the effect of the recent action of Congress in exempting American coasting vessels from tolls in passing through. In regard to the latter, it is almost needless to remark that British Columbia sentiment reflects strongly general British sentiment on the question. One result of such differentiation would be to deflect a good deal of purely Canadian traffic that would otherwise belong to British vessels. A very important question arises here as to what is a coasting vessel in such circumstances. There is nothing

in law to distinguish a coasting vessel in tonnage and equipment from an ocean-going vessel, and its status must be determined by the law governing coastwise trade, and that is more or less identical in the United States and Canada. I take it according to regulations in force on this coast that an American vessel could carry a consignment of freight and passengers from Vancouver to New York, for instance, and on her return carry a consignment from the latter place to the former. Or an American vessel could take passengers and freight from St. John or Halifax to San Francisco, Portland or Seattle, passing through the canal without paying tolls. To say the least, it is rather an abuse of the term coastwise or coasting vessel by which to describe a steamer trading between two such points, as a glance at the map will reveal. One might as well describe a vessel trading between Calcutta and Liverpool as a coasting vessel, because, forsooth, she is sailing between two British ports without making intermediate calls at foreign ports. The voyage from Seattle to St. John is a tolerably long one and crosses long stretches of ocean to make the trip, and except for the diplomatic fiction that the canal zone is American territory is made through waters that are not in any sense territorial. Apart from that, however, it must be clear that the new law of Congress exempting coastwise American vessels is a technical evasion of the terms of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, which did not contemplate any discrimination as among the ships of all nations using the canal, and it may be taken for granted that it would not have been signed by the British minister if the American intention had been declared in advance. It cannot affect the grain trade, but with the opening of the canal a considerable reciprocal trade of the nature suggested to be done by "coasting vessels" will be developed, and if the United States, to speak frankly, do not agree to refer the question to international arbitration it must be regarded as doubtful practice and would deepen an impression, already to some extent existent, which a great nation cannot afford to allow to become current among other nations.

Among the greatest of the international problems in which British Columbia is interested is that of naval defense. It is not strictly international, but has international bearings of a most momentous character. It is a question which is now in the political limelight throughout Canada. Sir Richard McBride, Premier of British Columbia, has emphasized our peculiar position on the Pacific

seaboard, exposed as it is to attack from the United States, Russia, China and Japan, in particular, without a single effective fighting ship, either Canadian or British, within striking reach. His frequent references to the subject have drawn the attention of the federal and imperial authorities to the necessity of a fleet unit on the Pacific to guard British possessions and British shipping in time of war and to avoid the possibility of advantage being taken of the weakness of that position. What a Pacific fleet unit is I need not discuss. It means, in plain language, a naval defense armament being created or transferred to British Columbia waters. Both political parties, locally at least, profess to believe in that policy as desirable and necessary; but political opinion is divided as to whether that fleet should be Canadian, part of a distinctively Canadian navy, or a division of the British navy assigned to the Pacific coast in our waters for purposes of defense. Whether there should be a Canadian navy operating in a prescribed area, designated Canadian, as advocated by Sir Wilfred Laurier, and the preliminary steps towards which were taken by him, or an empire navy contributed to by all the dominions and under one central control, as is supposed to be the policy of the Conservative government at Ottawa, I am safe in saying that the great mass of the people of British Columbia would support the latter scheme, as being the most effective and the cheapest to all concerned. The naval policy just submitted by the Right Hon. R. L. Borden at Ottawa, with the full concurrence and support of the imperial authorities, is not intended to be a final or even partial settlement of the question. It cannot even be described as a policy at all, so far as the ultimate intentions of the government in respect to a permanent naval programme, are concerned. If the idea is, as we must assume it to be, to secure the cooperation of all the dominions to a policy of cooperative defense, all the other dominions must first be consulted and out of the various views on the subject will be evolved a scheme that, if unanimity can be secured, will finally, in the course of two or three years, be submitted to the electors for approval. In the meantime, the people of British Columbia are enthusiastically in favor of the emergency contribution of \$35,000,000 in support of the British navy as it now exists, which will include temporary provision, at least, for a fleet unit on the Pacific. If my personal views were of any value I should have no hesitation in saying that such a solution has appeared to me for years

to be the only true solution of the empire's destiny—a solution based on the cooperation with the mother country of all the daughter dominions and parts of the empire, not only in respect to defense, but in mutual trade relations and in a comprehensive, general form of political organization following the lines of existing British representative national institutions.

RECIPROCITY

BY CLIFFORD SIFTON,
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I have been asked to give my views in regard to the trade arrangement which was made last year between the governments of the United States and Canada and which is popularly known as the Reciprocity Treaty.

I shall not attempt to recapitulate the arguments which have been used upon both sides of the line for and against the suggested arrangement. It would be impossible within any reasonable space to do justice to the arguments in detail and if it were possible it would be wholly futile so far as arriving at an intelligent view of the case is concerned. I shall therefore simply present the case as it appears to my mind in general terms.

A treaty of reciprocity relating to natural products only, as everyone knows, existed between Canada and the United States from 1855 to 1865. That treaty was admittedly of great value to Canada, and its abrogation by the United States against the wishes of Canada brought extreme hardship, loss of markets, loss of employment and much consequent loss of wealth and population.

Thenceforward from time to time efforts continued to be made by Canada to bring about better relations, but every application for reciprocal trade arrangements was promptly rejected by the United States.

Finally, in 1897, a last effort was made by Sir Wilfred Laurier's government. A joint high commission had been appointed to consider and, if possible, to settle matters in dispute between the United States and Canada. The trade question was brought up in these discussions, but the American representatives refused to make even the slightest concessions in the way of opening the United States markets to Canadian natural products.

Shortly after the failure of these negotiations Sir Wilfrid Laurier made an unequivocal pronouncement that Canada would no longer look to the American market. The country accepted that pronouncement as made in good faith and settled down to the

idea that we must develop our trade independently, and by our fiscal legislation, our foreign trade arrangements and our transportation system make ourselves as far as possible independent, of the fiscal measures of the United States.

This policy was followed with great vigor and success during the subsequent years and in consequence thereof the condition of general prosperity which existed in Canada in the year 1910 was such as twenty years before would have been regarded as quite unattainable.

Our position of late years had been singularly satisfactory. Nothing that could be called a serious financial crisis had been known in our country for many years. Poverty in the sense in which it is understood in other countries was and is practically unknown in Canada. The prices of manufactures had risen somewhat, but the prices of farm products had risen much more, so that, in the general prosperity, the farmer, whose interests are predominant with us, had been getting his full share. The revenue was growing rapidly, trade was increasing, mineral and agricultural production was expanding and a great volume of immigration of the highest class was pouring into the country and increasing its productive capacity. Our fiscal system had in the course of thirty-five years been well adapted to the peculiar circumstances of the country. That system was based upon the idea of moderate protection, but not such a protection as to be oppressive, nor such as to encourage or foster the formation of large trusts or combinations with power to oppress the people. Some such abuses no doubt had arisen, but both under the Conservative revision of the tariff in 1894 and the Liberal revision in 1897 objectionable features were removed, and the few possibilities of abuse that still remained under our tariff might easily be rectified if the people would take the trouble to ask for relief.

Under this fiscal system we have, broadly speaking, moderate taxation, a measurable amount of competition varying in different industries and an abundant, buoyant and elastic revenue.

In the campaign which took place last year I made a statement that so far as our information went there was not a country in the world, the population of which, man for man, was upon the average so well situated as that of Canada. I have no doubt that the statement was thoroughly justifiable when it was made and it is quite as true now as it was then.

Upon this stage and under these conditions the reciprocity agreement was suddenly and unexpectedly introduced. It is not too much to say that the whole proposition came as a complete surprise to both political parties in the country. No one was looking for or anticipating any such results from the negotiations. There had been a few public deliverances by men more or less prominent, nearly all of which, I think, were hostile to the idea of reciprocity, and a few business men had in a semi-jocular way expressed the hope that our negotiators would get back safely from Washington. I think, however, that I am quite within the mark when I say that there was no serious anticipation of anything important in the way of a treaty or agreement being arrived at. When, therefore, this far-reaching and revolutionary arrangement was announced it came as a complete surprise.

It was somewhat unfortunate in its introduction. In Canada all such matters are made the subject of a parliamentary statement by a member or members of the government of the day. In this case the business was in the hands of Mr. Fielding, Minister of Finance, and Mr. Patterson, Minister of Customs. No one doubts the ability of either of these experienced parliamentary debaters to bring to bear the necessary industry and capacity and to make the very most out of any case committed to their charge, but, strange as it may appear, neither Mr. Fielding nor Mr. Patterson nor the other members of the government ever seemed to realize that they were engaged in the fight of their lives, and that it was necessary for them to get to work and really argue the case. From the very first all of these gentlemen seemed to have been placed at a serious disadvantage by reason of the fact that they apparently thought a mere statement of the terms of the treaty to be sufficient to carry it without any backing of facts or arguments. This idea was due to what appeared to be a lack of realization of the changed conditions of commerce and industry as a result of what had taken place during the previous eighteen or twenty years. There was a time, for instance, when the cry of "free fish" would have swept the Maritime Provinces and when the cry of an enlarged market for hay, potatoes, barley, cattle and dairy products would have swept Ontario and Quebec, but conditions had changed in twenty years and the case had to be argued from new premises altogether. My observation led me to the conclusion that there was a very consider-

able lack of appreciation of this fact on the part of the government. As a result of this, while no doubt there was a fillip of favorable public sentiment on the first statement of the terms of the agreement, yet so soon as issue was joined in serious argument the impression went abroad that the government side was getting the worst of it. So far as the discussion in the press was concerned, the government side was not well served. The Liberal press, speaking generally, excels rather in attack than in defense. In this case, with one or two exceptions, there was a noticeable lack of thoroughness and vigor in the defense put forward in the Liberal organs. Naturally these papers took their cue from the government, and went in the early stages of the game too much upon the assumption that the mere statement of the terms would win approval. When in the middle of the campaign they found that this idea was fallacious, it was too late to retrieve the position, even if they had the weight of merit upon their side.

A considerable number of Liberals prominent in business openly and unequivocally attacked the reciprocity agreement. In the House of Commons, however, only three Liberal members broke away. The government was able to hold its following in the house and senate almost unbroken.

In the campaign which followed and terminated on the twenty-first of September, 1911, there was practically no serious discussion of any other subject than reciprocity. The government went into the campaign with a majority of about fifty. It came out in a minority of about fifty. There was no reason in the world to suppose that the opposition had any prospect of immediately defeating the government until this question came up. In fact, the opposition had in 1908 exhausted every possible effort and used every available weapon without success. At the beginning of the session of 1911 the opposition was to all appearances hopelessly out of the running and the government very strongly entrenched in office. The reciprocity issue arose. The government forced it forward in a general election. The opposition accepted the issue and won the election upon it and upon it alone. There has been much talk about other influences affecting the election. It has been said that the *Ne Temere* Decree affected the Protestant vote and that Protestants generally were disaffected toward Laurier. I think I know how far this idea prevailed. In my judgment, while no doubt

a few hundreds of voters were affected by these arguments, as in every election there will be little eddies of sentiment which have nothing to do with the main issue, I am perfectly satisfied that these side issues were of comparatively little importance and that the victory of the Conservative party in the election was practically due to the reciprocity issue and to it alone. The reason that the Conservative party swept the Province of Ontario, where in fact the victory was won, was because the people of that Province were thoroughly and whole-heartedly opposed to the trade agreement.

What were the reasons?

The short recital given above affords the key to the most important arguments used in favor of the winning side.

Canada had time and again been refused any consideration by the United States and had finally, at great sacrifice and with tremendous efforts, made herself commercially independent. Her products went to widely scattered markets, but there was little or no chance that she would ever be put to serious inconvenience by the closing of these markets. A careful survey of her position showed a degree of commercial independence which under the circumstances was rather surprising and very gratifying to the national pride of Canadians. It was felt that if we consummated the proposed treaty with the United States our trade would follow the line of least resistance. As stated by a New York paper, the reciprocity agreement would check the east and west development of Canada and make that country a business portion of the United States with the lines of traffic running to the north and south rather than to the east and west. The immediate and inevitable result of this would be that Canada would become absolutely dependent upon the fiscal policy of the United States and at the mercy of American tariff changes. It might be said that the United States would be equally interested in our fiscal policy, but the conclusive answer to that argument was that what might be vital to Canada with its eight million people and its small productions, would be of comparatively trifling importance to the United States with its ninety million people and its enormous volume of production. It would be, in fact, a case of partnership with one partner so undeniably predominant that the weaker partner would be in the position of the Roman philosopher who feared to press his argument

with Augustus too far because it was not wise to press too hardly in argument upon "the master of thirty legions."

In a word, the judgment of the business men of Canada was that the reciprocity agreement, if carried into effect, would mean a commercial alliance which would of necessity have to be carried further, and that as a necessary result of such an alliance the United States, being the greater, wealthier, stronger and more populous country, would dominate Canada's commercial policy and development.

It was, and is, believed that reciprocity in natural products would lead to reciprocity in manufactures. It was, and is, believed that the predominance of the United States in commercial legislation would lead to loss of control on our part of our undeveloped natural resources and especially of our water powers. It was, and is, believed that these results would not only affect us in the matters particularly mentioned, but would subordinate Canada to the United States in such a way as to interfere with her national independence.

Following this idea, it will be readily seen that Canadians who take seriously the idea of Canada's position in the British Empire had every cause to be alarmed. To place the most important unit of the British Empire, outside of the British Isles, under the domination of a foreign though friendly power would be a long step toward disintegration. Your publicists who said that this trade agreement would bind Canada to the United States and strike a blow at the consolidation of the British Empire were absolutely right and we who fought against it realized that fact and had a full appreciation of its importance.

Taking the Dominion by sections, the result was that Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island and New Brunswick were on the whole slightly but still decidedly unfriendly to the agreement. In Quebec, strange as it may appear, I can find no evidence that reciprocity seriously affected the rural voters or influenced them in the exercise of their franchise. On the other hand, the manufacturers, financiers, railway men and commercial men of Montreal and vicinity were practically a unit against reciprocity and their influence undoubtedly accounted directly or indirectly for fifteen or eighteen of the Quebec constituencies which were carried by the opposition.

The Province of Ontario was almost solidly opposed to the agreement. My own belief is that even the election returns which

gave seventy-three seats to the Conservatives and thirteen to the Liberals did not represent the real sentiment against the agreement. I knew fairly well the sentiment of Ontario as it was just previous to the election and I now believe that quite one-half of those who voted in favor of the Liberal government were at heart opposed to its policy. In fact, there was no heart in the contest on the part of the Liberal party in the Province of Ontario and there was apparently no mourning in its camp so far as the rank and file of the voters were concerned when it was defeated.

Winnipeg and the urban centers of the prairie provinces were generally opposed to reciprocity. The farmers were strongly in favor of it.

British Columbia was lost to the Liberals in any event on account of party disorganization and incompetent leadership, but it is fairly safe to say that the Province as a whole is against reciprocity.

Summarizing the case, we have the fact that a government, strongly entrenched and well organized, led by a man who is perhaps the most striking and brilliant personality in the British Empire, with a record of statesmanlike achievement behind it, went into a fight on the question of reciprocity and was hopelessly routed. No single portion of the Dominion, except the farmers of the three prairie provinces, showed the slightest enthusiasm for the policy of the government, while in the other parts of the country thousands of ardent Liberals went over to the opposition.

The opposition remains unchanged and unchangeable to-day. It is a deliberate, calculated and determined opposition. I am perfectly satisfied that if the House of Commons were dissolved to-morrow and Sir Wilfrid Laurier proclaimed in unmistakable terms his intention of going to Washington to negotiate a new treaty or to consummate the old one, he would be disastrously defeated. In fact, his defeat would be more decisive than it was last fall.

But it is difficult to see how such a case can again arise. The proffer of reciprocity on what seemed very liberal terms by the government of the United States was undoubtedly a high political play on the part of that government. The play was made to meet a most unusual and embarrassing condition of affairs within the ranks of the Republican party. The measure was supported by the Democrats in congress, because to support it was at once the simple, straightforward and politic thing to do. But circumstances have

changed and it may safely be said now that the conditions which brought the offer of reciprocity from the United States are not likely to recur.

Under all the circumstances, therefore, I conclude that reciprocity is not any longer in the least degree a practical political question. The question is not likely to return to the people of Canada in the form in which it was presented last year, but if it does so return it will undoubtedly be answered in precisely the same manner in which it was answered then.

Something should be said with regard to the ideas which in the main actuated the great body of those who were led to take an unusually active and determined part in the election. It should be stated in the most emphatic terms that there was no idea of hostility or unfriendliness to the United States at the root of their action. I think that most people thought that the treaty was a very liberal one from the standpoint of the United States. I never heard very much in the way of suggestion that the United States should have offered more or that our negotiators should have demanded more. The underlying motive was of a different character altogether. The people believed that the development of the two countries under the reciprocity policy was bound to interfere with the commercial independence of Canada and that idea was fatal to the success of the policy proposed.

Our people thoroughly recognize the greatness of the United States and its phenomenal success along many lines of human endeavor. It is, however, the opinion of our most thoughtful people that your constitution is now approaching its supreme test. We look with some apprehension upon your labor difficulties. We think also that your attempt to regulate the great monopolies which have arisen will tax the energies of the nation to the utmost. We most sincerely wish you well in the efforts which you are so manfully making. Nowhere has the tree of Liberty borne more glorious fruit than in the United States, and it is the sincere hope of every true lover of freedom that you may go from triumph to triumph exhibiting to the world a shining and inspiring example.

Your present problems, however, are vastly more complicated and difficult of solution than our own. We shall have in one way or another all these problems to solve, but they will come in smaller volume and in a form much less difficult to handle. We anticipate no serious difficulty in curbing any trusts or combinations that

may arise in Canada and in placing production upon a legitimate and proper basis. We feel also quite able to deal with questions affecting our great transportation systems. In fact, most of the machinery is already provided and working well. We, however, wish to deal with these questions and to regulate them in our own way without pressure from abroad and without feeling that great financial interests outside of our jurisdiction are being exerted to influence our decision.

There remains a word or two to be said upon a phase of the question which still remains as a tax upon the statesmanship of Canada. I refer now to the apparently conflicting interests of the farmers of the prairie provinces and the financial and manufacturing people of the East. There is little doubt that the majority of our western farmers desire a modification of the fiscal system. They consider themselves unjustly treated by the tariff upon manufactured goods and their ideas of relief run largely toward greater freedom of commercial intercourse with the States which lie to the south of them. In point of fact a close analysis shows that most of the disadvantages under which they labor are incidental to the very rapid development of the country and are likely to disappear in a comparatively short time with the progressive improvement of facilities and commercial and industrial organization. It is quite certain, however, that the farmers of the West are and will continue to be favorable to low tariff and the fewest possible restrictions upon trade. Their political influence may be permanently counted on in that direction. Particularly it may be said that if the present government, which is avowedly a protection government, should be tempted to raise the tariff upon manufactured goods so as to foster further combinations and enhancement of prices, thus resulting in an increased tax upon the western farmer, his voice will be heard with no uncertain sound and a tariff war of vigorous proportions will undoubtedly follow. There is, I am free to say, no indication as yet that Mr. Borden and his colleagues have any intention of following such a policy. But whatever may be the policy of the government, the predominant sentiment of the western prairie farmer will be for low tariff and the fewest possible restrictions. These sentiments will be modified by the knowledge that no one section of the country can have its own way entirely and that fiscal policy in a country of great extent and diversified interests must of necessity be a matter of compromise.

CANADA AND THE PREFERENCE¹
CANADIAN TRADE WITH GREAT BRITAIN AND THE
UNITED STATES

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Probably most Canadians still associate their trade with the United States and with Great Britain with possible political consequences. Under such circumstances tariff and party politics inevitably go hand in hand, and because the tariff has its political side it remains an object of popular interest, an interest which is doubtless shared by students of Canadian political development generally. Particularly at the present epoch new tariff relations might mean a great deal for future affiliations.

The History of Preference

The preference which has since become more or less of an intra-imperial policy dates back many years to pre-confederation days, and the times of colonial policy. What may be called the present phase began April 23, 1897, on the initiative of the late Sir Richard Cartwright, as a flank attack on protection. Sir Richard, then Minister of Trade and Commerce, so explained it on the floor of the House of Commons. The initial preference rate was one-eighth and by virtue of their trade treaties with Great Britain, Germany, Belgium, France and Spain enjoyed its privileges. But following the denunciation of the Belgian and German treaties and their expiration in July, 1898, the preference was increased to one-fourth from August 1st, and confined to goods from the United Kingdom and those British Colonies giving Canada as favorable terms as they received from her. A further increase from one-fourth to one-third was made on July 1, 1900. From the remarks of Sir Richard and other evidence it is clear that the preference must be regarded as a measure of tariff reform at the hands of a political party traditionally pledged to a lower tariff. Incidentally it constituted a clever reply to the Tory cry of disloyalty—a cry that had long been thrown at

¹This article appeared originally as a series of letters in the *London Times*, but has since been considerably revised and brought down to date.—EDITOR.

the Liberal party because of its platform of reciprocity with the United States. For a while it looked as if the idea of a preference had passed from the hands of the political parties to become, as far as such things can be, a fixed principle of the Canadian tariff. And so it seemed until the negotiation of the French treaty in 1907, followed a couple of years later by the removal of the German surtax, the Belgian treaty, and the announcement that the government would shortly enter once more into trade negotiations with the United States.

The important rôle played by those of French descent in Canadian life makes it readily understood, quite aside from the possible value to Canada of the French market, why a commercial treaty with France was negotiated. Apart, however, from comparatively few lines (more particularly embroideries, gloves, silks, soaps and cheese) the items given most favorable rates do not compete seriously with British goods. Belgium being a country convenient for transshipment from the continent, the treaty with her raises other considerations, especially as Canada's examination of European customs declarations is superficial and inadequate. Under the circumstances there is grave danger that the granting to her of the intermediate tariff on numerous items not produced largely or at all in Belgium may in practice extend the same low rates much more widely than intended.

The Popular Attitude

It may be argued that it would have been highly impolitic on the part of Canada to refuse to discuss tariff matters with the United States when for the first time in her history she was invited to do so. To this there is no adequate answer, particularly as the two countries have many important international matters to settle from time to time. Though as regards the tariff Canadians cannot forget that the whole history of the Dominion has been fought out in the face of a singularly hostile legislation on the part of the United States, resulting in a tariff admittedly sharpened to force Canada into commercial union with her. It is too soon to forget it. And recently the remarkable publication by President Taft of an interchange of views with Mr. Roosevelt on the probable effect on Canada of closer trade relations with the United States serves to confirm susceptible Canadians in their fears.

Canada's rapid growth, it must be remembered, dates only from the nineties; and has been the outcome of the opening up of the country and of the policy of developing trade routes east and west instead of north and south. Brilliantly successful as this development has been, it is not yet completed. The recent rejection of the trade overtures from Washington will doubtless postpone any further serious trade negotiations for some years. But the fact that the cabinet possesses the extraordinary power by mere order-in-council to reduce the tariff from the general to the intermediate rate without reference to Parliament, and the further fact that the government has still no tariff board for expert reference, such as exists in the United States and in effect in other countries, unite to make Canadian business men sensitive to possible political exigencies. In addition is to be borne in mind the provisional character of present trade agreements.

Canadian Protection

As a distinct policy Canada's protective tariff dates from 1879; but the Canadian Pacific Railway did not string the provinces together from coast to coast for another seven years. In the meantime, and, for another eight years, it must be admitted the tariff did little more than allow Canada to maintain a separate existence from the United States. Only with the gradual opening up and development of the country and the improvement of the trade routes east and west was an assured future realized. In other words the British market relieved Canada from her over-weaning dependence on the United States; it was her salvation; and it is very largely still. Coming as it did at this stage the preferential tariff fitted in with the natural course of evolution, and it gained additional support from the outbursts of Imperial sentiment at the time of the South African war and subsequently.

The Meaning of Preference

As regards the preference, both British and Canadian business men have come to understand better its real meaning. The ordinary citizen not in close touch with trade conditions appeared to regard it as something little more than a toy. In any event it was in his mind not to be taken very seriously. For a time the sentimental aspects appeared to bulk prominently. But business men now view it both as a business and as a political policy. It is not a mandate

for mutual sacrifices. On that everyone will agree. Nor is it a medium to work out single-handed a revolution in trade relations. Rather is it an important object-lesson in political and constitutional relations; a partial offset to British geographical remoteness; and a measure of tariff modification.

Canadian Opinion on Tariff Revision

Canada is undoubtedly moderately protectionist. But as regards present public opinion on tariff revision it is impossible to speak with certainty. It is probably in a waiting mood; and will probably remain so until the promised tariff board has been tried out. Certainly business conditions and prospects are very different from what they were in the eighties and early nineties when the commercial union movement disturbed the country; they are different from what they were in the year when the successive stings of the McKinley, Wilson and Dingley tariffs were fresh in the popular mind. As for the farmer, generally speaking, he is well-off, at least if he has not neglected his opportunities. In addition to the foreign demand for his farm produce, the home market has increased so rapidly that local prices are often as high as, if not higher than, in Great Britain. Already the home market consumes a high percentage of many lines of Canadian produce, and is rapidly growing. Of the wheat, barley and oat crop, 80 per cent, and of the total product of the farm, nearly 90 per cent is consumed locally. For the time being Canada is an egg-importing country; her butter exports are disappearing; the export of cheese has fallen markedly, and the export of bacon has been cut in two.

The Application of Preference

It is to be pointed out that the preferential principle has still not been tested thoroughly. To lop off 12½ or 25 or 33½ per cent on the whole tariff list is not necessarily to adapt preference to the conditions of the British market. It may and it may not. At best it is a hit or miss method. To test its possibilities the amount and extent of preference should be decided from a British as well as from a Canadian point of view. It should be the result of a careful investigation of conditions and possibilities. In other words, and this is vital, it should be confined to classes of goods that are actually produced within the Empire and in which there is a likelihood of

larger trade. As yet this has not been done. If it is not so restricted but is nominally extended to lines not produced or manufactured within the empire it is an invitation to false customs declarations and to fiscal and industrial confusion. In the revision of the tariff in 1906 the principle of a uniform preferential cut was abandoned, it is true; but the observation still holds in that the revision was made from a purely Canadian standpoint.

Canadian Trade

As a young and growing country Canada has large exports and still larger imports. Most of her exports go to Great Britain; most of her imports come from the United States. With a population of less than 8,000,000 she ranks next to Great Britain and Germany in the list of United States customers. For the year ending with March, 1911, the figures are (exclusive of coins and bullion):

	Million \$	Percentage
Exports to—		
Great Britain	132.2	56
United States	104.1	44
	236.3	100

	Million \$			Percentage
	Free	Dutiable	Total	
Imports from—				
Great Britain	25.4	84.5	109.9	28
United States	121.8	153.1	274.9	72
	147.2	237.6	384.8	100

Possibilities of Directing It

The question at once arises how far the current of this trade can be deflected by preferential and related legislation. In forming our judgment we must not overlook certain permanent conditions of Canadian trade. No amount of rational legislation could make Canada buy from England agricultural produce, timber, raw cotton, tobacco, petroleum and a host of other things not classed as manufactures. Great Britain's sales to Canada are chiefly manufactured

goods. Sometimes public speakers, wishing to discover the "natural" trade relation of Canada and Great Britain draw lessons from the totals of duty-free imports; but such a practice is misleading in that a great part of so-called raw materials is dutiable, and the free list is a reflection of something very different from the "Divine Order."

That Canada and the United States are geographically interdependent to an important degree is obvious. The United States looks to Canada for nickel, copper, asbestos, spruce, pulp, timber, fish and in certain contingencies for agricultural produce. Canada looks to the United States for raw cotton, tobacco, hard coal, hardwoods, Indian corn and a long list of manufactured wares, especially those subject to quick, and taken singly, rather small orders. In a recent average year (1911), apart from settlers' effects and bullion, what may be called a raw material made up thirty-three per cent of the imports, as against seven per cent from Great Britain. In both cases there are remarkably few items. Five-sixths of that coming from the United States is represented by the following (in million dollars): Coal, 36.1; Indian corn, 7.3; lumber, 12.4; fruits, 6.5; undressed furs, hides and skins, 3.3; raw tobacco, 1.9; iron ore, 2.5; bar and pig iron, 2.4. Apart from the last item these purchases are more or less fixed; whereas of the British seven per cent none of the items can be so regarded.

Look now at the course of trade from another point of view. Imports from Great Britain covering the produce of the farm, forest, mine and fisheries, raw and slightly manufactured goods, were only \$6,500,000, as against over \$83,000,000 from the United States. Tariff legislation could not be expected to disturb this division to the advantage of Great Britain. In fact, direct ocean steamship service between foreign ports and Canada would cut off some of the British trade in southern products and reduce by that much the imports now returned as British. Omitting bullion, settlers' effects and tea, and allowing \$5,000,000 of British goods credited erroneously to the United States, by reason of re-invoicing, etc., this leaves \$90,000,000 of manufactured goods from Great Britain, as against \$160,000,000 from the United States. This \$160,000,000 is the possible target for preferential legislation, and I think will approximate the actual business situation. All things considered, these figures do not place British trade in a very unfavorable light, though improvement is undoubtedly possible. To what extent, now, is this trade

in manufactures and in other lines natural and fixed? One can only answer by describing conditions.

As regards the possibilities of tariff legislation there may be perhaps an inclination to draw conclusions from the striking results of the German surtax. But this is dangerous, for Germany's economic relations with Canada are very different from those of the United States, her Canadian sales being much more amenable to legislative influence.

The American Tariff

The United States tariff being, as a rule, prohibitive of Canadian manufactured goods, Canada's sales to the United States are upwards of nine-tenths raw or nearly raw material. Apart from the products of the farm, forest and mine, practically in their rough state, drugs and medicines, whiskey, pig iron, fertilizers, coke, cement and tea, there are only a few scattered items of importance. The extended and subtle sub-divisions of the United States tariff, with a view to securing protective efficiency on particular items, are only appreciated by the foreign manufacturer attempting to develop a market in the United States. That tariff has been aptly described as a "tricky one." What can a Canadian manufacturing jeweler with 35 per cent protection do against a United States duty on jewelry of 60 per cent and on enamelled jewelry of 85 per cent? Sole leather is now 5 per cent, upper leather 10 per cent, but leather belting and footballs 40 per cent, leather cases and pouches 60 per cent, threshing machines 15 per cent, but steam engines, which must accompany them, 30 per cent (if the engine is a gasoline engine the duty is 45 per cent), and all repair parts 45 per cent.

With a view to determining the average rate of customs duty levied by the United States on Canadian imports most writers take the total dues collected in relation to the bulk of trade done. But this is a fallacious basis, in that the question here hangs really not on the amount of duty collected, but on the protective or prohibitive efficiency of the tariff. For example, the importation of ships to be registered in the United States is prohibited outright; the duty on carpets is roughly 75 per cent, which is prohibitive as far as Canada is concerned; pianos, 45 per cent; watch chains, 60 per cent; machinery, 45 per cent; tweeds and serges, 100 to 150 per cent, etc. I have made up a list of somewhat over forty staple commodities

produced or manufactured in both countries, which one might expect in the natural course of affairs could be mutually traded in. On these items the average United States duty is 44 per cent, as against 24 per cent charged by Canada, which is probably sufficiently typical of the relative tariffs of the two countries in actual practice. On the theory of infant industries one might have expected the percentages to be reversed.

In fact, the whole United States system seems conceived in protection. With a view to facilitating trade Canada has customs ports of entry in all towns of any importance throughout the country; the United States, on the contrary, besides specifying that consular certificates shall accompany all shipments of over \$100 value, requires that entries be passed at the frontier in a very small number of places—which means also the employment of customs brokers—a system causing delays and frequently considerable annoyance and extra expense to the importer.

The Recent Negotiations

That after establishing such a high tariff, and in return for not levying a still higher one, the United States should ask, for a still lower one on Canada's part, as she did a couple of years ago, immediately subsequent to Canada's treaty with France, can only be described as a resort to the policy of the big stick. That the Canadian Minister of Finance yielded must be explained by the view that the smaller people should humor the bigger one to some extent. The call for a lower tariff at present making itself heard in the United States may not bear much fruit for several years yet. It will then be time after Canadian development has reached a higher stage of industrial maturity for Canada to re-consider seriously and generally her trade relations with the United States. At present every Canadian knows that a generally lower tariff against the United States would mean the end of much of our British trade and the yoking of Canadian industry to the characteristic speculative ups and downs of the United States market—a feature of which the English buyer, too, has reason to know something. The Anti-Dumping Act passed by Canada in 1904 was itself a recognition of the desirability of checking this very result. According to this act, duties have to be paid under heavy penalties, on the basis of current prices in the exporting country; and in case of a lower quotation the government itself appro-

priates the difference up to 15 per cent of the value, providing the difference is at least $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. In the opinion of the late manager of the tariff department of the Canadian Manufacturers' Association, this legislation has served to check dumping when trade in the United States is good, but has not been and could not be effective when business was bad. Secret rebates, too, are probably not an uncommon means of dodging the act. But on the whole it seems to have proved to be a wise bit of protective legislation, especially under a moderate tariff.

Protection and Export

As regards the relation of tariffs to export trade it must not be forgotten that in the event of imported goods being made into finished wares and exported, both the United States and Canada allow a rebate of 99 per cent of all duties paid. This partly explains how it is sometimes possible to quote lower prices for export than for home consumption. It also explains why United States goods are sometimes shipped to Canada via England; for the Canadian duty is levied on the price current in the country of sale, not in the country of origin.

Accuracy of Trade Statistics

Coming more directly to the question of trade in manufactures between Great Britain and Canada, it is to be noted in the first place that Canadian trade statistics need a great deal of amplification and editing. For example, large importations of free goods are made through United States brokers acting as British agents. It is the old-established practice of many English houses to give the agency for Canada along with that of the United States. Fortunately, the tendency is now slowly working towards the creation of separate agencies for Canada. On the other hand, large export sales are made by Canada through United States export houses, and such exports are placed to the credit of the United States. Sometimes there is a special reason, as, for example, when in the case of cut lumber a United States firm will take the output of special cuts of a great many Canadian and domestic mills, sorting these specialized cuts to the market. Thus, while American builders demand 8-inch, 10-inch and 12-inch boards, English architects call for 7-inch, 9-inch and

11-inch cuts, and only in this way could such orders be filled conveniently.

United States Advertising

That prevailing tastes in Europe and America are different needs no argument. Outlook on life and ways of living are not the same. United States industries have, therefore, an initial advantage in catering to their own continent, especially when aided by the greatest mania for advertising of specialties and novelties characteristic of any country or any time. England sends into Canada more Bibles and prayer books than United States, but far fewer periodicals. On catalogues Canada levies a customs duty of 15 per cent, but many United States houses get catalogue-substitutes in free in the form of magazine advertisements; and the suggestion has been made to the Minister of Finance that the unusual and altogether unique situation of literature and advertisements being bound up together should be met by a specific duty per pound on foreign periodicals. The proposal appeals to some for the reason (which one may repeat without disrespect) that the United States magazines flood the public mind with a glorification of their own country, and, more or less often, with a disparagement of people and things not American.

Character of New World Demand

Of the new-world citizen it can be said he is often contented with less substantial goods than the Englishman; thinks much of neat appearance and loves change. Witness the, at times, amusing extremes of the American shoe, the lightness of carpenters' tools (probably because the American carpenter works more on soft woods), bicycles, automobiles, brass goods, jewelry, etc. The styles in traveling bags have run the gamut of half a dozen colors and a still greater number of shapes and sizes, while the Englishman has stood by his essentially satisfactory tan or brown bag. The stress of competition, the desire to catch the consumer's eye and to extend sales drive the American manufacturer on. A faddy market may be expensive; as Americans say, it may "come high" and be economically wrong, but it means a monopoly for the local manufacturer. It is not necessarily a question of quality, but of something else. New devices,

new processes perhaps break up old connections, and the high cost of labor places the manufacturers of both Canada and the United States in the same boat as regards their interest in mechanical appliances. The frequent discarding of the old by United States industry may at times fall into prodigality; and in any event it increases overhead expenses as compared with Canada, and still more so with England.

Conditions of Market Supply

Some of the circumstances under which goods reach the consumer through the great expanses of America have an important influence. For example, the most remote rural jeweler may handle a Waltham or an Elgin or a Swiss watch, and through the one make he selects can allow his patron to choose from 120 or more classes or grades. No British watch-house can offer more than a fraction of this range. It is not necessary to seek for explanations from the instructive history of the British watch-trade. Here the preference of the country jeweler is decided not necessarily by a question of quality but of ease in doing business. He can satisfy almost any demand by the one catalogue and a letter or a wire to the one address. It is a condition created by external circumstances and fostered by advertisements and by repeated and effective "drumming." The wide range in styles of shoes, half-sizes in underclothing, etc., help in the same direction as does the fact that United States quotations are always in dollars and cents. The more frequent use of mercantile and other agencies for reports on the financial reliability of houses, and greater elasticity of credit are also characteristic of United States business dealings. This is of particular importance, looking to the inception of business relations. Thus American industry adapts itself to, and grows with, the country, and eventually is hard to dislodge. Imperial penny postage, which Canada arranged for in 1898 through the splendid work of Sir William Murlock, has proved a distinct aid to communications with Great Britain, as has also the later lowering of the postage on British magazines. If low cable rates could be secured it would be a still more important aid in holding British trade connections. So infinitely important to business is a low cable tariff that the whole cable situation should be given special study by Great Britain.

Importance of Warehouse Facilities

But no degree of improved communications can alone counter-balance geographical remoteness. Quick deliveries, quick repairs from stock of adjustable parts mean well-equipped local supply houses at strategic points. Thus far British manufacturers have had their eyes on too many markets to specialize on the scattered and divided Canadian demand. But the situation takes on a different aspect when it is noted that if business methods mean anything, an effort for Canada's business is at the same time an effort for greater trade over all North America.

The Needs of the Moment

The large amounts of British capital sent yearly to Canada are frequently pointed to as a means of securing business for Great Britain. But the great bulk of these investments go into public securities and railway and industrial bonds, comparatively little into industrial stocks, which carry the technical management. The number of cases where Canadian factories are in charge of British managers and British foremen is remarkably small. From an investigation made by *The Monetary Times* of Toronto a couple of years ago, British investments in Canada during the previous five years totaled up to \$605,000,000, of which only \$22,500,000 were of a specifically industrial nature. On the other hand, the United States, the same journal estimated, had invested some \$279,000,000, only a comparatively small amount of which was in public securities. The figures given were as follows:

BRITISH INVESTMENTS IN CANADA FOR FIVE YEARS (1905-1910)

Canadian bank shares purchased.....	\$1,125,000
Investments with loan and mortgage companies.....	5,719,774
British insurance companies' investments.....	9,731,742
Municipal bonds sold privately.....	10,000,000
Industrial investments.....	22,500,000
Land and timber investments.....	19,000,000
Mining investments.....	56,315,500
Canadian public flotations in London.....	481,061,836
	<hr/>
	\$605,453,852

PRESENT UNITED STATES INVESTMENTS IN CANADA

175 Companies, average capital \$600,000.....	\$105,000,000
United States investments in British Columbia mills and timber.....	58,000,000
United States investments in British Columbia mines	50,000,000
Land deals, Alberta, etc.....	20,000,000
United States investments, lumber and mines in Alberta.....	5,000,000
Packing plants.....	5,000,000
Implement distributing houses.....	6,575,000
Land deals, British Columbia.....	4,500,000
Municipal bonds, sold privately.....	25,000,000
	<hr/>
	\$279,075,000

These figures only illustrate what is a matter of common knowledge in Canada—that in contrast with British capital the great bulk of United States capital enters the country as branch factories and other outright industrial investments. With superintendents and foremen from the United States it is not surprising that English travelers and goods have often a poor chance of a market. Whatever fault may be found with citizens of the American Republic they can never be accused of unbelief in the peculiar virtues of American ideas, methods, men and industrial products. It is worthy of remark that of the recent presidents of the Canadian Manufacturers' Association three were heads of branches of United States houses; but in these cases it need hardly be said they were none the less Canadian.

Trade Agents

Of the influence of the nationalities of the new settlers in the West and elsewhere it is too soon to speak. With actual trade conditions and prospects the United States keeps in remarkably close touch by newspaper correspondents and by means of consuls located in the chief towns throughout the country and making frequent reports to Washington. At present there are no less than seventy-six United States consuls and consular agents as against one British trade commissioner located at Montreal, with a few trade correspondents, who cannot be compared with the consuls. It would also seem as if Canada should take a leaf from the United States and definitely develop a trade consular system the beginnings of which are seen to-day in the Canadian trade agents. If Washing-

ton's example were followed in this respect Canada would collect the incidental expenses as fees from the foreign exporters. Such fees give a certain amount of additional direct protection, and serve also as a medium for checking customs' undervaluations.

Transportation Routes

Behind these and other influences stands the problem of transportation. New York to Toronto or to Montreal, St. Paul to Winnipeg, Seattle to Vancouver are but over-night runs. The Liverpool merchant ships to Canada by four routes:

1. To Halifax (2,342 miles), or Montreal (2,800 miles), thence rail, or from Montreal river steamer to head of Great Lakes. To Vancouver by this route is 5,800 miles; time required for freight 8 to 12 days to Montreal, thence 14 to 30 days to Vancouver.
 2. Via Mexico to Vancouver by the Tehuantepec route (190 miles), across the peninsula (8,000 miles), 42 to 45 days.
 3. Via the Suez (15,522 miles), 70 to 80 days.
 4. By tramp steamer via the Horn (14,317 miles), 70 to 90 days.
- From Vancouver inland the distribution is by rail.

How Rates are Fixed

Through rates from both Eastern Canada and Europe are governed by those via the Suez. This water competition, to which latterly the Mexican route has been added, has been disturbing to existing trade. If the Panama project is successful the results may be still more marked. One may be pardoned for suggesting a doubt as to the permanent commercial feasibility of a canal across a dangerous earthquake belt, the approach to which moreover, on the Atlantic side at least, is said to be closed to sailing vessels. Panama is also 1,000 miles further south than the Tehuantepec line. Already shipments from Eastern Canada to British Columbia are sent via Mexico simply because this route is at times able to underbid the all-rail route. But if this relief to Eastern Canada is to be permanent it must be conditional on the vessels securing return cargoes to English ports, thence fresh ones back to Canada. A policy of diverting Canadian exports from Great Britain to the United States would thus seriously militate against the success of this new and important commercial development. Certainly in improving Canadian shipping facilities British trade has been and is worth much to Canada.

Shipments via Chicago

It may be said that for freight traffic for Western Canada there is close competition between Canadian lines and lines via and from Chicago. As is to be expected in a new country the rate per ton per mile is somewhat higher on manufactures and merchandise in Canada than in the United States. The manager of the transportation department of the Canadian Manufacturers' Association estimates that probably fifteen per cent of Eastern Canada's shipments to the Canadian West go in bond via Chicago—a percentage that will doubtless lower when the Canadian Northern and the Grand Trunk Pacific railways are completed. Here it should be mentioned promptness of delivery or "efficiency of service," as it is called, is often as important as a favorable freight rate; for example, in the delivery of Ontario fresh fruit in Manitoba, etc. To competitive points in Western Canada the rate from Chicago is usually somewhat lower than from Eastern Canada, to non-competing points proportionately higher. For through carload shipments from Chicago to the Pacific the greater industrial specialization of the United States manufacture and the larger size of United States warehouses on the coast admit often of closer rates than those quoted from competing points in Canada. Just how these differentials affect trade is only known fully to those directly concerned. In the case of free goods they obviously count heavily; and mean more with goods of low specific value than with goods of higher value. Particularly in the former case a difference in freight charge may convert a profit into a loss.

Rates to Eastern Canada

From Great Britain and Continental ports to Ontario and Eastern Canada through rates are arrived at by adding the ocean rates as fixed by the North Atlantic Freight Conference to what are known as "import" rates, these rates being somewhat lower than the domestic rates from the seaboard. And as regards the "import" rail rates they are a matter of agreement between the lines operating from Canadian and Eastern United States Atlantic ports.

Rates to Western Canada

To points west of Port Arthur, that is west of the Great Lakes, to the Rockies, special through freight rates are published from

Europe. These rates are also fixed by the North Atlantic Freight Conference, and there has been a gradual increase in some of them in the last year or two. To some extent they are governed by competition via United States routes.² It may be said that any increase in through rates to the Canadian interior operates to that extent adversely to British and favorably to United States freight.

The Pacific Coast as a New Distributing Center

With the completion of the Grand Trunk Pacific and the Canadian Northern Railway, now under construction, to the Pacific Ocean, the Pacific slope will become a more and more important distributing center for Canada. Even now European freight rates via the Suez to Vancouver are lower than those direct from Montreal. It means new and important problems for the broad Dominion. It means that already Canada is divided like all Gaul into three parts—east, west and center; the center being, so to speak, a neutral zone where freight charges bulk more largely and are the objects of keen comparison. The matter is not closed there. Protected by these higher freight costs local industries may be expected to spring up, and actually they are already springing up, at different points, particularly at the head of the Great Lakes where there is admirable water-power.

Canada's Great Problem

Thus to keep the Dominion contentedly united is one of the great reasons why plans are being carefully studied for improving the canals to the head of the Great Lakes, for building a railway from Hudson's Bay to Winnipeg (to make effective the Hudson's Bay route to England), for local waterways in the great prairie country, and for supporting fresh railway connections between the Pacific and the interior. That there is no time for delay is evident from the fact that while in 1890 there were three United States railway lines crossing the boundary west of Lake Superior, to-day lines cross at over a dozen points. Many United States stub lines, moreover, run up to the border, and with little additional cost could be extended to tap any given locality. As railway men know, local lines of this class are subject to much lower costs of transportation than the main

² The Spokane rate case as settled by the Interstate Commerce Commission is not important in this connection.

lines of a great system. And if, in order to secure return cargoes, United States railway and other interests should find it necessary to secure control of a certain number of newspapers and inaugurate in this way or otherwise a campaign for tariff modifications, the situation might become more than interesting. So often the real moving force behind political campaigns is hidden. It is such conditions and possibilities that make the tariff problem of Canada so overwhelmingly important.

The Importance of Shipping Facilities

Through her splendid shipping facilities, and aided by the preferential tariff, Great Britain has now the big end of the through western coast trade. Without the preference the Canadian Pacific Railway would be able to handle considerably more of this trade originating in Eastern Canada than it does at present. In other words, if the preference were less through Canadian freight rates could be higher. Tariff and freight rates are thus indissolubly connected. Another illustration of the practical identity of freights and customs tariffs is the working of the French treaty. The tariff reductions under this treaty apply only to shipments made from France or via Great Britain direct to a Canadian port. With but one line of steamers running between France and Canada this shipping becomes more or less of a monopoly; and when, following the treaty, freight rates were advanced it was claimed that the increases were made possible by the French preference which they to that extent reduced. Not having steamship connection with the Pacific coast the French are severely handicapped in that trade. Should at any time the British preference be confined to shipments direct to Canadian ports, as the Canadian Maritime Boards of Trade have urged, it is to be expected that the ocean steamship companies would endeavor to secure a share of the preference by advancing their rates unless such rates were fixed beforehand and rigorously controlled by international agreement.

Some Conclusions

From this brief survey certain conclusions with regard to the preference can be drawn:

1. A simple tariff modification may not be effective unless it applies to cases and conditions admitting of success. As yet the

powers of the preferential tariff have not been tested out. The preference is not merely Canadian; it is Imperial. As it is, it has certainly diverted considerable trade in some lines to Great Britain, buttressed British trade in other lines and been a big influence in arousing British manufacturers to the conditions of the Canadian market. It may mean much more if it is realized that an effort for Canada's market is an effort for North America, as the characteristics of Canadian and United States' demands are very similar.

2. The problem of transportation (railway, steamship, post and cable) and the related ones of free harbors, and greater British warehouse facilities in Canada demand much more attention.

3. Freight rates are in practice an important and integral part of custom tariffs.

4. Present trade statistics are not sufficient to disclose conditions.

5. The preferential tariff has probably had much to do with the expansion in Canadian shipping.

6. A thorough investigation of these conditions is desirable; and this is the task of the Imperial Trade Commission now at work. The results of its investigations should be an invaluable guide for all parts of the empire in regard to the possibilities of free-trade, preference and protection.

7. Canada's trade with the United States is largely independent of the preference and as far as the customs tariffs go has been hampered and checked much more seriously by the United States tariff than it has been by the Canadian.

THE LEGAL STATUS OF HUDSON'S BAY

BY THOMAS WILLING BALCH,
Of the Philadelphia Bar.

Among the early explorers of North America who have left their names clearly fixed upon the map of the world was Henry Hudson. This has happened in a threefold way: for by his name are designated a majestic river, a wide strait and a great sea. An Englishman, he navigated not only under the flag of his own country, but likewise at times he served the States General of the Netherlands.

In 1607, in command of the Dutch ship, the *Half Moon*, Hudson entered the Hudson River. Three years later, with the English vessel, the *Discovery*, he passed through and explored Hudson's Strait. In June, 1610, he entered and discovered the great sea that ever since has been known as Hudson's Bay, which was to be alike his tomb and his chief monument.

Until comparatively recently, Hudson's Bay has been accepted by the international juriconsults of the world at large as forming, according to the tests of the rules of the law of nations, a part of the high seas. Within the last few years, however, a desire has begun to grow up in Canada to annex to the territorial waters of the Dominion *in toto* that great sea which bears Hudson's name. For example, in the last edition of the "Encyclopaedia Britannica" (1910), it is stated that Canada is anxious to declare Hudson's Bay a *mare clausum* on account of the whale fishery. Let us consider very briefly the legal status of the waters of the Hudsonian Sea.¹

Hudson entered that sea at a time when the struggle between the principle of *mare liberum* and *mare clausum* was becoming an active factor in the political relations between the English and the Dutch. In earlier times, under the Tudors and other more ancient sovereigns, England had pursued a liberal policy as regards commerce upon and fishery in the sea. Indeed, the greatest of the Tudors,

¹ For a more extended and detailed consideration of this important international question than can be presented within the space of this short article, see an essay by the present writer, "La baie d'Hudson, est elle une mer libre ou une mer fermée?" in the *Revue de Droit International et de Legislation Comparée*, Brussels, 1911, vol. XIII, new series, pages 539-586.

Queen Elizabeth, in a famous answer to the Spanish ambassador at her court, Mendoza, supported the freedom of the seas. After Drake's return in September, 1580, from a voyage around the world, with a mass of plunder that he had captured from Spanish vessels and settlements on the coast of South America, the Ambassador of Philip II made a complaint directly to England's Queen herself. After pointing out in her reply that Drake was amenable to a personal action in the courts of England if he had injured any one, the Queen continued that the Spaniards had no right to justify them in excluding the English from trading with the West Indies. Then, as Camden tells us, Elizabeth went on to say:²

"Moreover all are at liberty to navigate that vast ocean, since the use of the sea and the air is common to all. No nation or private person can have a right to the ocean, for neither the course of nature nor public usage permits any occupation of it."

With the advent of the Stuarts to the English throne the liberal policy of England as regards the sea was reversed. She laid claim to more and more exclusive rights over the seas surrounding her and ultimately forced and fought three bloody naval wars with the Dutch for the control of the narrow seas and the right of exclusive fishery in them.

In reply to Grotius's essay, *mare liberum*, printed at Leyden in 1609, King Charles I of England caused Selden's *mare clausum* to be published at London in 1635. While most nations have supported sometimes one side, sometimes the other, of this contention, as accorded best at the given moment with their respective policies, the opinion of the world has inclined finally to the view advanced by Grotius. The famous Hollander in his larger and more mature work, *De jure Belli ac Pacis* (1625), however, recognized that a state has the right to exercise its authority over a strip of sea along its coast line. At the beginning of the eighteenth century, another Dutch jurisconsult, Bynkershoek, expounded more precisely the extent of this sovereignty of nations over the sea washing their shores. As a general maxim, he taught, *imperium terræ finiri ubi finitur armorum potestas*.³

Applying this principle to things as they were in his time, Bynker-

² Camden: *Annales*, n. a. 1580 (edition of 1605), 309.

³ Bynkershoek: *Jcti et Præsidis, Quaestionum Juris Publici, libri duo*, Leyden, 1737, liber 1, cap. viii, folio 59.

shoek limited the extent of the exclusive sovereignty of states over the sea to the range of a cannon shot.

In deciding whether the waters of a bay or other sinuosity were territorial or part of the open seas, the test advanced by publicists and international jurists came to be whether the entrance of any embayed body of water could be defended and controlled from the opposite shores.

In 1758, the Swiss, Emer de Vattel, wrote:⁴

"All we have said of the parts of the sea near the coast may be said more particularly, and with much greater reason, of the roads, bays and straits, as still more capable of being occupied and of greater importance to the safety of the country. But I speak of the bays and straits of small extent and not of those great parts of the sea to which these names are sometimes given, as Hudson's Bay and the Straits of Magellan, over which the empire cannot extend, and still less a right of property. A bay whose entrance may be defended may be possessed and rendered subject to the laws of the sovereign, and it is of importance that it should be so, since the country may be much more easily insulted in such a place than on the coast open to the winds and the impetuosity of the waves."

Thus Vattel insists that in order that a bay may be considered to be a *mare clausum*, its entrance from the sea must be so narrow that it can be dominated and controlled from the opposing shores. Hudson's Strait, which connects Hudson's Bay with Baffin's Bay and the Atlantic Ocean, is at all points forty-five miles wide, and in general it extends to a width far greater, generally of about one hundred miles.⁵ According to the above formulated test of Vattel, Hudson's Bay is an open sea. And in addition, Vattel specifically names Hudson's Bay as an open sea.

With the passage of time before and after Vattel had given the above cited opinion that Hudson's Bay was an open sea, the extent of the territorial sea was gradually fixed at the distance of a cannon shot from the land, which was translated by degrees into one marine league or three miles.

The three-mile limit was consecrated by the United States and Great Britain in the first article of the treaty of 1818. It was sub-

⁴ Emer de Vattel: *Le Droit des Gens ou Principes de la loi naturelle*, Amsterdam, 1775, vol. 1, p. 142.

⁵ *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, Cambridge, England, eleventh edition, 1910, vol. XIII, page 851.

sequently recognized in many treaties between various nations until it became very generally adopted. It is not, however, universally recognized. For instance, Norway claims that her jurisdiction extends four miles seaward from her furthest seaward islands, and Spain asserts that her sovereignty extends six miles from her coast.⁶ In 1894 the British government protested against this claim of Spain.⁷

Applying this three-mile limit as the extent of the zone of territorial waters to bays and gulfs and other sinuosities, there gradually arose as a corollary, the rule of international law that, where the three-mile zones advancing from each shore at the entrance of the bay or other kind of sinuosity meet and form a line six miles across from land to land, that line of six miles should be taken as the base from which to measure the three-mile zone seaward, and that the sovereignty of the state, master of the surrounding land, did not extend further outward towards the sea, but that all the expanse of the bay inside of that six-mile line, no matter how wide and large the bay further within might become, should belong to the encircling nation, because the entrance was effectually occupied where the shores were not more than six miles apart. But the center of bays and other sinuosities whose entrance from the high seas was wider than six miles, form, with some historic exceptions, part of the open sea. Many publicists, such as Ortolan⁸ and Hautefeuille,⁹ for example, can be cited in support of the above rule.

This six-mile rule, however, has been modified in the case of many bays by treaty agreements between individual states. Thus by formal treaty between Great Britain and France in 1839, those two nations agreed as between themselves, that all bays along certain parts of their respective coasts which were ten miles or less wide at their entrance, should be territorial in their entirety. That ten-mile line has been adopted in many subsequent treaties and it would seem that the ten-mile rule is in process of displacing and superseding the six-mile rule.

Whether tested by the six-mile or the ten-mile rule, however,

⁶ Sir Thomas Barclay, *Annuaire de l'Institut de Droit International*, vol. XII (1892-94), p. 125; Richard Kleen, *ibid.*, p. 140.

⁷ Lord Derby to Mr. R. G. Watson, September 25, 1894. *Ex. Doc.*, 1875-76, Washington, Government Printing Office (1876), p. 641.

⁸ Theodore Ortolan: *Diplomatie de la Mer*, Paris, 1856, vol. I, p. 157.

⁹ L. B. Hautefeuille: *Des droits et des devoirs des nations neutres en temps de guerre maritime*, Paris, 1868, third edition, vol. I, p. 60.

the great sea named in honor of Henry Hudson clearly forms a part of the open sea and does not fall within the category of the territorial waters of Canada, excepting of course the band of three miles that follows the contour of its shores. For the entrance to Hudson's Bay and its connection with the ocean ranges in width from forty-five miles up to more than double that distance across from land to land.¹⁰

In considering the legal status of Hudson's Bay, the fact that it is called a bay should not be allowed to cloud the question in issue. For though it is called a *bay*, it is in reality a *large sea*. Not only is Hudson's Bay several times as large as the area of Great Britain, but in addition it is much larger than such seas as the Baltic and the Adriatic, both of which were in former centuries closed but are now open seas. In fact, it is larger than the North Sea and the Sea of Japan, and compares favorably in its area with Bering Sea, all of which form part of the high seas.

Especially, however, a comparison of the size and legal status of Hudson's Bay and the Gulf of St. Lawrence are instructive and illuminating as to any exclusive claims of Canada over the former body of water. The area of Hudson's Bay amounts to 1,222,610 square kilometers, while that of the Gulf of St. Lawrence amounts only to 219,300 square kilometers. Both these seas are encircled by lands of the British Empire, the former by the Dominion alone, the latter by Newfoundland as well as Canada. The connection of Hudson's Bay with the ocean is not less than forty-five miles in width, and in general it is more than twice that distance. The Laurentian Sea, besides its connection with the ocean through the Strait of Belleisle which is ten miles wide between Newfoundland Island and the mainland of Labrador, is joined to the Atlantic Ocean by Cabot Strait, sixty miles in width. This is not only ten times as much as the usual six-mile test—in the absence of a treaty providing another measure as to whether bays are territorial or not in their entirety—but also besides, the center of Cabot Strait is far beyond the reach of shore batteries. By all the usual tests of the law of nations the Laurentian Sea is a part of the high seas. The distinguished British jurist, Dr. Westlake holds that the Gulf of St. Lawrence is an open sea.¹¹ And in the North Atlantic Coast Fisheries Arbitration case, which was argued before and decided by The Hague

¹⁰ *The Encyclopaedia Britannica*, Cambridge, England, eleventh edition, 1910, vol. XIII, p. 851.

¹¹ John Westlake: *International Law*: second edition, 1910, vol. I, p. 197.

Judicial International Court in 1910, the Gulf of St. Lawrence was recognized by implication as an open sea by all parties concerned. It has been so regarded from time immemorial by the nations of the world.

Why then should Hudson's Bay, which is five and a half times as large as the Laurentian Sea, at this late day in the development of the doctrine of the freedom of the sea, be classed suddenly as a *mare clausum*? If that great northern sea named after Henry Hudson is to be ranked as a closed sea, it must be so classified on some other grounds than its geographical limits unless at the same time many other seas of lesser extent are withdrawn from the category of open seas.

As has been said above, Vattel, the leading authority upon the law of nations for all the world in the second half of the eighteenth century, whose treatise still carries weight to-day and is cited with respect, held that Hudson's Bay formed a part of the open sea. But also in more recent times other distinguished publicists and jurists have recognized Hudson's Bay specifically as an open sea. Thus for instance the Briton, Phillimore,¹² the German, Bluntschli,¹³ the Russian, Fedor de Martens,¹⁴ the Swiss-Belgian, Rivier,¹⁵ have declared that Hudson's Bay forms a part of the high seas. And in the well-known "Encyclopaedia Britannica," eleventh edition, published in 1910, though it is said in the article on Hudson's Bay that Canada desires to make of Hudson's Bay a *mare clausum*, yet that large sea is acknowledged in that article to be a *mare liberum*. The writer says:¹⁶ "The bay abounds with fish, of which the chief are cod, salmon, porpoise and whales. The last have long been pursued by American whalers, whose destructive methods have so greatly depleted the supply that the government of Canada is anxious to declare the bay a *mare clausum*."

There is a notable instance in the struggle for the maintenance of the freedom of the seas that supports that freedom for the waters of Hudson's Bay. In the early part of the last century, by an ukase issued in 1821 by the Emperor Alexander I, the Russian Government laid claim to an absolute dominion over Bering Sea, and also

¹² Sir Robert Phillimore: *International Law*, London, 1879, second edition, vol. 1, p. 284.

¹³ J. C. Bluntschli: *Le Droit International Codifié*, traduction de C. Lardy, Paris, 1886, sec. 309.

¹⁴ F. de Martens: *Traité de Droit International*, Paris, 1883, vol. 1, p. 504.

¹⁵ Alphonse Rivier: *Principes de Droit des Gens*, Paris, 1896, vol. 1, p. 155.

¹⁶ *The Encyclopaedia Britannica*, Cambridge, England, eleventh edition, 1910, vol. XIII, p. 851.

a large portion of the northern part of the Pacific Ocean. Against this claim of exclusive jurisdiction beyond the usual narrow band of territorial waters following the contour of the coast line, the Government of Great Britain as well as that of the United States protested emphatically. The difference between America and Russia was arranged by the treaty of 5/17 of April, 1824, which recognized among other things the freedom of the North Pacific Ocean. The negotiations between Great Britain and Russia were more protracted, but were finally arranged by treaty in 1825.

George Canning, Foreign Secretary of Great Britain, wrote on September 27, 1822, to the British premier, the Duke of Wellington, with respect to the claims advanced by the Moscovite Government over the waters of Bering Sea and the extreme northern part of the Pacific Ocean. Concerning the pretensions advanced by Russia in the ukase of 1821, Canning maintained that such claims were, according to the best legal authorities, "positive innovations on the rights of navigation." By common usage, "an accessorial boundary," he said, had been added for a limited distance to the shores of a state in order to secure to that nation sufficient protection, without interfering with the rights of the subjects of other states to navigate and trade freely. As stated in the ukase, the Russian claims, he maintained, disregarded this important qualification, and consequently were "an encroachment on the freedom of navigation, and the inalienable rights of nations." Continuing, Canning referred to an exchange of views that he had had with the Russian Ambassador and said that he thought that Russia would rescind that portion of her public notification whereby she had announced that she would "consider the portions of the ocean included between the adjoining coasts of America and the Russian Empire as a *mare clausum*, and to extend the exclusive territorial jurisdiction of Russia to 100 Italian miles." Thus Canning in a communication to his chief, the Duke of Wellington, the executive head at that time of the British Empire, maintained that the claim of Russia to exercise, to the exclusion of others, her sovereignty over a large portion of the Pacific Ocean and also over Bering Sea, which was bounded exclusively by her coasts, though with many passages more than six miles wide connecting the main ocean with Bering Sea, was not justified by the law of nations, either as taught by the jurists learned in that science or by the actual practice of nations.

The principal object of the British Government during the negotiations with Russia from 1821 to 1825, that resulted in the Treaty of 1825, was to maintain the freedom of the waters of the Pacific Ocean and Bering Sea. This we know from the instructions that George Canning, British Foreign Secretary, gave to his cousin, Sir Stratford Canning, as the latter was about starting to resume negotiations with the Russian Government, at the point where they had been suspended at an earlier date. In the latter part of the instructions to Sir Stratford, the British Foreign Secretary said:¹⁷

It remains only, in recapitulation, to remind you of the origin and principles of this whole negotiation.

It is *not* on our part essentially a negotiation about limits.

It is the demand of the repeal of an offensive and unjustifiable arrogation of exclusive jurisdiction over an ocean of unmeasured extent; but a demand qualified and mitigated in its manner, in order that its justice may be acknowledged and satisfied without soreness or humiliation on the part of Russia.

We negotiate about territory to cover up the remonstrance upon principle.

But any attempt to take undue advantage of this voluntary facility, we must oppose.

Thus, the British Empire sought for her chief object, during the negotiations over her conflicting interests with those of the Russian Empire concerning land and sea in Northwestern America and Bering Sea, to obtain from the Moscovite Government a public disclaimer of the claim advanced by Russia in 1821 that Bering Sea and large parts of the northern Pacific Ocean were Russian territorial waters.

In the Anglo-Russian treaty of February 16/28, 1825, concluded by Sir Stratford Canning for Great Britain and Count Nesselrode and M. de Poletica for Russia, the latter nation gave up her pretensions to absolute jurisdiction over the waters of the North Pacific Ocean or Bering Sea beyond the usual limit along the coasts.¹⁸ At the same time the two nations agreed upon a land frontier that was to separate their North American land possessions.¹⁹

Hudson's Bay and Bering Sea much resemble one another. Those two large seas are in great measure surrounded by land. Before and at the time of the signing of the Anglo-Russian treaty of 1825, and afterwards until Russia sold Alaska to the United States in 1867,

¹⁷ *Fur Seal Arbitration, British Case*, Washington, vol. IV, p. 448.

¹⁸ *Fur Seal Arbitration*: Washington, vol. IV, p. 42.

¹⁹ Thomas Willing Balch: *The Alaska Frontier*, Philadelphia, 1903, pp. 5-6.

the land encasing those two seas was possessed by a single nation. If the entrance from the main ocean to those two seas, one called a sea and the other a bay, were six miles or less in width, both of them, at the time the Anglo-Russian Treaty of February, 1825, was signed, would have been classified according to the doctrine of *mare clausum* as closed seas. Russia had proclaimed openly to all the world her right of exclusive jurisdiction over the waters of Bering Sea, as well as part of the Pacific Ocean further toward the south. Russia wished very much to include Bering Sea within her own domain as a *mare clausum*. Like the United States, however, Great Britain contested this proposed extension of Russian jurisdiction over all of Bering Sea on the plea that, according to the accepted rules of international law, Bering Sea formed a part of the high seas and consequently was an open sea. And as the Russian Government gave up in 1824 to the United States, it likewise yielded in 1825 before the protest of Great Britain the Moscovite claim that Bering Sea was a *mare clausum*. But if Bering Sea was a *mare liberum* as the government of Great Britain asserted with so great success in 1825 against the contrary claim of the Russian Government, why then, according to the same line of argument, is not Hudson's Bay also a *mare liberum*? Surely the strong presentation of facts and the able arguments made with such success by the official representatives of Great Britain in the first quarter of the last century against the attempt of Russia to withdraw Bering Sea from the area of the high seas, by declaring it a closed sea, are applicable to the analogous status of the waters of Hudson's Bay. Surely if Bering Sea was an open sea in 1825, so also was Hudson's Bay. When, since that time, have either or both of them become closed seas?

From the foregoing brief survey of some of the historic facts and rules affecting the international status of the waters of the Hudsonian Sea, it is evident that that great body of salt water forms, like Bering Sea, the Baltic Sea, the Adriatic Sea and many other similar large sinuosities, part of the high seas. And that consequently Hudson's Bay is still what it was when Vattel wrote in the middle of the eighteenth century, an open sea.

THE UNITED STATES AND CANADA IN THEIR HUNDRED YEARS OF PEACE

BY JAMES L. TRYON,

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The proposition to have a celebration of the Hundred Years of Peace, 1814-1914, recalls the relations between the United States and Canada since the signing of the Treaty of Ghent. The question naturally arises, Have their relations been pleasant? Are they in any way unique? Is there anything about them to celebrate?

That the relations of these countries are unique is attested by the fact that to a large extent their people are descended from the same ancestry, speak the same language, enjoy the same inheritance of the English common law, and have developed side by side a successful democracy. Quebec may have her French Roman law—so has Louisiana; neither affects the common law of other jurisdictions. French is one of the official languages of the Dominion of Canada, and here may be an exception that we cannot parallel, but the French Canadian is an integral part of Canadian life, and Sir Wilfrid Laurier has declared in the same loyal spirit as Sir John A. Macdonald, that he is a British subject. We have in the United States nearly a million and a half loyal French Canadians, many of whom can say, "I am an American citizen." And so, although the parallel may not be exact, a resemblance exists. More than that, it is impossible oftentimes to distinguish a British Canadian from an American by his dress or his accent. All these facts indicate the oneness of the two peoples.

It does not necessarily follow, however, that, because these peoples are closely related, they are exempt from disagreement. The very closeness of their relation and their geographical nearness to each other have often caused controversies that would never have occurred had they lived farther apart; but, whenever there has been irritation, it has, except in one instance, ended in a friendly understanding. All the more reason, then, is there for a day of rejoicing over the long peace that, in spite of international complications, has prevailed.

A lesson, at once most timely and encouraging in this age when nations that are outwardly friendly are armed to the teeth, can be learned from the experience of the United States and Canada. It will show that, in one instance of very great importance, an agreement for the limitation, reduction, and disuse of armaments has been a practical success. By an exchange of notes that took place in 1817 between Great Britain and the United States, with the approval of the United States Senate, Sir Charles Bagot, minister representing the mother country, and Richard Rush, acting for the American Department of State, an agreement¹ for the limitation of naval armaments was made to the effect that each nation should maintain not more than one warship apiece on Lake Ontario and Lake Champlain, or more than two each on the Great Lakes, none of which ships should exceed one hundred tons in burden, or be armed with larger than an eighteen-pounder cannon. It was understood by the contracting parties that this agreement might be terminated on six months' notice from either power to the other. The agreement has been subjected to considerable strain at times, but in spirit it has never been broken. That it could ever have been literally kept was impossible, except at the start, because of the low standard of tonnage and armament in the early days of the nineteenth century, as compared with the enormous tonnage and armaments of to-day. Mr. Root once referred to this singular compact as having become "an antiquated example of naval literature." There was a period about 1838, during the Canadian rebellion, when the British government exceeded the limit agreed upon and justified its position to the United States on the ground of public danger; and there were one or two occasions when the United States was called to account by the British minister for exceeding the limit as to the size of ships, but these technical departures from the stipulations have never been deemed serious. There was, however, an attempt made by the United States to have the arrangement terminated towards the close of the civil war, when the Federal government was compelled to take measures for the defense of its territory from Confederate invasions made, or expected to be made, from Canada. But the end of the war came before the six months required for notice actually expired, and the United States decided to let the contract remain in force.

¹ For a history of the naval agreement, see I Moore's *International Law Digest*, section 143. Consent of the Senate given April 16, 1818; proclaimed April 28, 1818.

But the point that the experience illustrates, and the same thing is practically true of the land as well as the lakes boundary, is that on a border line of more than three thousand miles—the longest in the world—there is no appreciable menace by either nation from forts or warships, and the expense for their maintenance, when compared with that of the armaments of European countries in like situations, is hardly worth consideration. The Canadian border line has aptly been called the safest border line in the world.

Most of the questions that have arisen between the United States and Great Britain in relation to Canada have been questions of boundary or of fishing rights. Nearly all questions relating to boundaries have arisen in consequence of obscure passages in or mistakes in maps used by the makers of the Treaty of 1783. Fisheries questions have turned chiefly upon the interpretation of the convention of 1818. All disputes have been settled by arbitration or diplomacy. Although sometimes the decisions rendered and the settlements made have been unsatisfactory to the losing party, the conduct of the two peoples has been highly honorable and left no sting of international resentment that abides to this day; and, to prepare for the future, these countries have now entered upon an arrangement that is quite as unique as the "Truce of Armaments." They have constituted an international boundaries commission that is capable of dealing with every question that may come up, arising from interests pertaining either to the frontier or elsewhere.

The first question of importance between Canada and the United States is related to the northeastern boundary. A commission was provided for in the Jay Treaty to determine what river was meant by the St. Croix in the Treaty of 1783. This commission, composed of two arbitrators, each of whom was a citizen of the contending countries, and an umpire, also a national of one of them, chosen by the two commissioners, fixed upon the Schoodic, or Schoodiac, River, according to the American claim, instead of the Magaguadavic as contended for by Great Britain. This settlement, the story of which is appreciatively told in the first volume of John Bassett Moore's "International Arbitrations,"² was made by men of the highest personal

² For the history of international arbitrations between the United States and other countries, see generally Professor John Bassett Moore's *International Arbitrations*, 6 volumes, with maps. The first volume relates especially to arbitrations between Great Britain and the United States, including those in which Canada has been interested. There is no other work of equal authority on the subject. The writer combines with historical accuracy a respect for international justice

character and legal fitness, who, though their sympathies had been with one side or the other in the revolutionary struggle, were rejoiced that they could perform their duties to this controversy as brothers rather than as enemies. James Sullivan, of Massachusetts, agent of the United States, in concluding his report on this arbitration in 1797, wrote: "Why shall not all the nations on earth determine their disputes in this mode rather than choke the rivers with their carcasses, and stain the soil of continents with their slain? The whole business has been proceeded upon with great ease, candor, and good humor."³

When the war of 1812 had demonstrated to Great Britain the necessity of a clear title to the route from Halifax to Quebec overland, south of the St. Lawrence, an effort was made to secure it as of right under the Treaty of 1783; but the peace commissioners of the United States, to whom the matter was referred at the time of the negotiation of the Treaty of Ghent, resisted the British claim. An agreement was then made, however, that a special commission should be appointed by the British and American governments to survey and determine the line. If the commissioners failed to agree, the question was to be submitted to a friendly arbitrator. The commissioners disagreed and the King of the Netherlands was requested to arbitrate. Failing to find an unmistakable line according to the maps and information laid before him, he recommended a compromise boundary, which was calculated to suit the convenience of both parties but to cause serious loss to neither. This award, or recommendation, being in excess of the arbitrator's powers, was not accepted, and after considerable correspondence the dispute was settled by Daniel Webster and Lord Ashburton, who, in 1842, met at Washington and agreed upon a conventional line. This line gave to the United States about seven-twelfths of the twelve thousand square miles of land in dispute, and to Great Britain for Canada five-twelfths, which was more than the arbitrator had allowed to her. The treaty further confirmed to the United States its claim to Rouse's Point, which was found to be a little north of parallel 45°, the accepted line between

and a high regard for the public services of the men of all nations who have helped to adjust the differences described.

See also an address by Justice William R. Riddell, on "Arbitration Treaties affecting the United States and Canada," in the report of the Lake Mohonk Conference on International Arbitration, 1912, page 75. See the same writer, in *Judicial Settlement of International Disputes*, p. 14, in which report he is equally happy in his account of the relations between the two countries.

To both Professor Moore and Justice Riddell I am indebted for my summary of facts.

³ Moore's *International Arbitrations*, I, 17.

the two countries at that point, and granted the right to citizens of the United States to use the St. John River in the British dominions for floating down lumber and other produce, on the same terms as allowed to citizens of Canada. The general government of the United States compensated the states of Maine and Massachusetts, proprietary owners of the land in controversy, for their losses, by payments of \$150,000 each, and gave to Maine, in addition, a considerable sum to reimburse her for expenses incurred in defending her claims to the territory, the jurisdiction over which she had exercised.

The Webster-Ashburton treaty had been preceded by great public excitement on both sides of the line. The State of Maine had appropriated \$800,000 for military purposes, and the United States government \$10,000,000 in the form of extra credit to support the assertion of the American claims. Arrests and counter-arrests had been made by the governments of Maine and New Brunswick. Maine had a civil posse on the scene and had equipped regiments for war. Forts were built and military roads constructed to anticipate hostilities. In fact, the controversy was called "the Aroostook war;" but this was a misnomer—there was no war. General Scott was sent to the border to effect an armistice between Maine and New Brunswick. The situation was further complicated by the affair of the *Caroline*, the destruction of an American vessel on the Niagara River, and the accidental killing of an American citizen by a British-Canadian force. This force, the public character of which Great Britain afterwards acknowledged, thus succeeded in preventing supplies from reaching some revolutionists on Navy Island; but, to placate outraged national feeling, the destruction of the *Caroline* was made the subject of an apology in a letter from Lord Ashburton to Mr. Webster. Other events, like the case of the *Creolè*, afterwards (1853) adjusted by arbitration, also endangered the situation, but the diplomacy of the two distinguished commissioners was equal to the emergency.

At a critical stage in the negotiations relating to the boundary line, Lord Ashburton and Mr. Webster ceased to keep written protocols of their work, and informally reached their conclusions. Both were afterwards severely criticised for making concessions, and in England the settlement was contemptuously spoken of as "the Ashburton capitulation" by political opponents like Lord Palmerston. Webster justified himself in an able speech on the Treaty of Wash-

ington. But no statesmen of Great Britain and America were ever more patriotic, or ever had the larger interests of their two peoples more at heart than these great men. After his appointment as commissioner, Lord Ashburton, in a private letter to Mr. Webster, wrote: "The principal aim and object of that part of my life devoted to public objects during the thirty-five years that I have had a seat in one or the other House of Parliament, has been to impress on others the necessity of, and to promote myself, peace and harmony between our countries; and although the prevailing good sense of both prevented my entertaining any serious apprehensions on the subject, I am one of those who have always watched with anxiety at all times any threatening circumstances, any clouds which, however small, may, through the neglect of some or the malevolence of others, end in a storm the disastrous consequences of which defy exaggeration."⁴

The peace that has prevailed between Great Britain and America is to a large degree due to the fact that we have had men like Webster and Ashburton to meet every warlike situation.

The fixing of the national ownership of islands in Passamaquoddy Bay was the work of a commission in 1817, authorized by the Treaty of Ghent. But afterwards it was found that the title to a few small islands was not settled and the boundary line in Passamaquoddy Bay was finally determined by a treaty signed May 21, 1910; ratifications exchanged August 20, 1910. Doubts as to the boundaries of the United States and Canada in the St. Lawrence, Lakes Ontario, Erie and Huron, were peacefully solved by two commissioners in 1822. Under the Treaty of 1854, a dispute as to places reserved respectively to Americans and Canadians for their fisheries in that treaty was adjusted by a commission with the aid of an umpire.

In 1846 another question of almost equal importance with that of the northeastern boundary arose in the Northwest; where, however, at that time the national life of Canada was undeveloped and Great Britain, as the mother country, was the chief British party concerned. By the assertion of long cherished rights, both the United States and Great Britain laid claim to land near the Columbia River. To prevent a clash of arms, the debatable land was by treaty occupied in common, without prejudice to claims of either

⁴ Van Tyne's *Letters of Daniel Webster*, p. 253.

country, from 1818 for ten years. Attempts to settle the question in 1824 failed, and in 1827 the joint occupation was indefinitely renewed. The excitement of the political campaign of 1844 in America is remembered by the cry, "Fifty-four forty or fight!" which helped to secure the presidential office for Mr. Polk. England at that time claimed down to the mouth of the Columbia River, between 46° and 47°. This question was settled shortly afterward by an agreement made by James Buchanan, Secretary of State, and Mr. Pakenham, the British minister, who compromised on the line of 49° and kept the peace. A question of comparatively no importance from the point of view of international excitement was settled in 1869, when a commission adjusted claims of the Hudson's Bay Company and the Puget's Sound Agricultural Company.

In practically all the negotiations between the United States and Great Britain affecting Canada up to 1871, Canada was represented solely by Great Britain; but in the making of the Treaty of Washington, signed May eighth of that year, she was specially represented by Sir John A. Macdonald,⁵ her distinguished premier. After the rejection by the United States of the Johnson-Clarendon Convention, which had made provision for the settlement of claims between the two countries, but met with almost unanimous opposition in the American Senate, the two governments were brought together by the instrumentality of Sir John Rose,⁶ a member of the Canadian ministry. Sir John Rose, as British commissioner in the settlement of the Hudson's Bay and Puget's Sound Agricultural companies' claims, made the acquaintance of some of the leading men in, and connected with, the American Department of State; and "as one-half American, one-half English, enjoying the confi-

⁵ The signers of the treaty were, on the part of the United States, Hamilton Fish, Robert C. Schenck, Samuel Nelson, Ebenezer Rockwood Hoar, and George H. Williams; on the part of Great Britain, the Earl de Grey and Ripon, Sir Stafford H. Northcote, Sir Edward Thornton, Sir John A. Macdonald, and Montague Bernard.

For the important part taken by Sir John A. Macdonald in the making of the treaty, see Joseph Pope, *Memoirs of the Right Honorable Sir John Alexander Macdonald, G.C.B., First Prime Minister of the Dominion of Canada*, and Lieutenant-Colonel J. P. Macpherson, *Life of Sir J. A. Macdonald*.

It is interesting to note that this statesman, like Mr. Webster and Lord Ashburton, was criticised by some of his people for making concessions. His remarkable defense of himself, which in its way is quite equal to the speech made by Mr. Webster many years before, will be found in II Macpherson, p. 110. This speech was made in the Canadian House of Commons May 3, 1872, and reported in its records.

⁶ See Moore's *International Arbitrations*, I, 519-30; and, in that connection also, J. C. Bancroft Davis' *Mr. Fish and the Alabama Claims*; Frank Warren Hackett's *Reminiscences of the Geneva Tribunal*; Charles Francis Adams' *Lee at Appomattox, and other Papers*.

dence of both governments," had been asked by the British government to see what could be done informally towards settling the questions at issue. He exercised his good offices with tact and ability. The Treaty of Washington was the most important ever made in respect to the number and character of the arbitrations for which it provided. The chief of these, and the most important in the history of the world, was the Geneva Arbitration, which dealt with the Alabama claims, in which however Canada was not especially concerned, as the questions were between the United States and the home government of Great Britain. The award rendered gave the United States \$15,500,000. The Treaty of Washington made an arrangement for the settlement by commission of claims for damages by citizens of the United States against Great Britain, and by British subjects against the United States, arising out of occurrences during the period of the civil war, entirely apart from the Alabama claims. These included claims connected with the St. Albans, Vt., raid, which was alleged to have been made by Confederate soldiers who came by way of Canada. There were a few other matters of damages that also related to Canada. In the Treaty of Washington provision was made for fixing the amount of compensation due from the United States to Canada for fishing privileges conceded by Great Britain under that treaty. The commission met at Halifax and awarded \$5,500,000. For a time, the payment of this money, the amount of which was deemed to be excessive, provoked discussion in the United States; but a right feeling prevailed and the debt was honorably discharged.

The San Juan boundary, the question as to the location of the channel between Vancouver Island and the continent, was, under the Treaty of Washington, referred to Emperor William I of Germany, who decided in favor of the contention of the United States, which claimed the de Haro Channel.

The Bering Sea controversy arose in connection with the seizure of Canadian vessels in waters wrongly claimed as jurisdictional by the United States. The decision rendered by a commission at Paris, 1893, made an award favorable to Great Britain, which obtained for Canada by a commission, under a treaty made in 1896, about \$473,000 damages. The first commission made protective regulation for the sealing industry to be observed in the future. The question had threatened serious trouble to the respon-

sible heads of government, but they kept it within their own confidence and did not permit it to embroil international relations.

One of the greatest questions of boundary, that between Alaska and British Columbia, failed of adjustment by diplomacy and was referred to a joint high commission of British and American citizens. Two of the British delegation were Canadians. By vote of four to two, the Canadian members dissenting, the English member joining with the three Americans, the case was decided at London in 1903 in favor of the contention of the United States. There was much dissatisfaction in Canada over the results, and Lord Alverstone, the English member of the tribunal, was severely criticised for sacrificing the interests of Canada to those of the Empire, but the award was accepted.

The most important arbitration of modern times, except that of the Alabama claims, was really between Canada and the United States, though nominally between this country and Great Britain. Newfoundland was also concerned in it. This was the fisheries question, which had been dragging on latterly under a *modus vivendi*, but formerly under other temporary arrangements, none of them very satisfactory, for seventy years. At times there was friction which was due to the enforcement by naval patrols of provincial laws against American fishermen who were in direct rivalry with Newfoundland and Canadian fishermen on what appeared to be their own ground. By the treaty made in 1909, which related back to the general arbitration treaty negotiated in 1908, the case, in the form of seven vital questions, was submitted to a tribunal at The Hague which rendered its decision in 1910. The American judge was George Gray, of Delaware. The British judge was a Canadian, Sir Charles Fitzpatrick, Chief Justice of Canada. The neutral judges were Professor Lammasch, of Austria; Dr. Savornin-Lohman, of the Netherlands, and Dr. Drago, of the Argentine Republic. Professor Lammasch served as president of the tribunal. No dispute that has ever been tried by the British and American governments, unless it was the claims litigation presided over by Joshua Bates in 1853, has ever been settled to better satisfaction for both parties than the fisheries case. It has proved to be powerful evidence among the English-speaking peoples, and before the world, of the efficiency of the Permanent Court of Arbitration at The Hague.

By a treaty made in 1909 for the United States and Canada,

an international joint boundary commission of six members was created to deal for the future with all disputes affecting Canadian and American rights, obligations, or interests on the frontier or elsewhere, either in the relations of these countries to each other as governments or between their respective peoples. The arrangement provides that the commission may act either as a board of inquiry to make a report, or as a tribunal; but in the latter case agreement to submit a dispute to the commission must have the consent of both the Canadian and American governments.⁷ This commission has been described by Mr. Justice Riddell, of Toronto, as "a miniature Hague tribunal" between Canada and the United States. It makes all outside intervention unnecessary and the resort to force inconceivable.

Upon the question of reciprocity it is not the purpose of the present writer to enter other than to observe its relation to questions of war and peace. International friendship and reciprocal trade between these two countries are usually kept apart by intelligent peace workers. In 1854 a reciprocity treaty was made which, until its expiration by notification by the United States in 1866, gave general satisfaction to both countries. This was followed by a standing offer on the part of Canada for a similar treaty for many years afterwards, but to no avail, as the United States would not respond to it. When, however, reciprocity was proposed by the United States in 1911, it was declined on the part of Canada. A campaign in which reciprocity was the leading question was fought out in Canada in 1912, mainly on commercial issues, but effective appeal was also made to Canadian national sentiment on the ground that the arrangement might lead at some future time to the absorption of Canada by the United States, or at least it would place Canadian trade at the mercy of the United States. The refusal of Canada, though a disappointment in some quarters in this country, did not deeply, or indeed at all, affect the friendly feeling that had long prevailed between the Canadian and American peoples, but was regarded on this side of the line as perfectly legitimate, and the relations between the two countries are as cordial to-day as ever. "Believe me," said Premier Borden, speaking before the American Society of International Law in April of last year,

⁷ See iv *Supplement American Journal of International Law*, 239. In case of equal division of the commission an umpire shall be chosen.

"I do not need to assure you of it—that the result in Canada on that occasion was not dictated in any respect, in any degree whatever, not in the slightest degree, by any feeling of unfriendliness toward the people of the United States; because we know that the relations between the two countries during the past twenty-five years have been most friendly and cordial in every way, and I do not doubt that in all the years to come that friendliness and cordiality will be maintained to the full."

There have been in the past some occasions when men like Goldwin Smith have proposed the political union of Canada and the United States and insisted that, although retarded for a time by secondary forces, union is destined inevitably to come; but there is no such tendency at present, rather all signs point to the contrary. The only union that is likely, as Mr. Justice Riddell has well said, is that of the heart. Each country prefers its own form of government—the one a democracy under a monarchy, the other a democracy in a republic; the "crowned and the uncrowned republics," Mr. Carnegie, a true lover of both, once happily characterized them. Talk of merging the interests of these two countries is seldom heard in the United States, and when made is usually regarded either as a joke or as the dream of a visionary. In Canada the proposal of a merger might be taken as an affront or, charitably viewed as the suggestion of a person uninformed as to Canadian sentiment.

At this point there lies a difficulty in the relations between the two peoples that historical students ought to remedy. It must be admitted that the American, as a rule, is absorbed in his own affairs, which, at the enormous rate at which his country is developing, give him much to think about at home. He is indifferent to Canada; he is ignorant of Canadian history and institutions. A student in a Canadian college learns considerable of the history and institutions of the United States. Historical courses on Canada are practically unheard of in American colleges. The average Canadian school boy knows the names of the states of the American Union. The average American school boy could probably not name the provinces of the Dominion of Canada. The average Canadian college student has an intelligent conception of the Constitution of the United States. The average American college student knows nothing of the British North America Act; he knows, of course, all the glorious traditions of the Pilgrim Fathers, but he has never

heard of the Fathers of the Confederation who laid the foundations of a new political union that is destined, in the minds not only of men like Sir Wilfrid Laurier, but of well-informed Americans, to become in the twentieth century one of the most prosperous and influential commonwealths of the world. The average Canadian knows American poets like Longfellow, philosophers like Emerson, and novelists of various types; but the average American has little idea of Canadian literature, whether in the form of poetry, philosophy, or novels. A large, though not increasing, number of Canadian students come to the United States to study in our colleges and universities, but comparatively few American students go to Canada for collegiate training. That there has been an interchange between school teachers and college professors by means of conventions and otherwise, and that there is a mutual debt in the establishment of representative educational institutions of the two countries, there can be no doubt. President Lowell of Harvard has proposed that this mutual debt be recognized at the time of the celebration of the Century of Peace. But this does not consciously affect the average man in America, or cause him to study Canadian history and institutions. If he is studious, he knows much more about France than about Canada, and still more about England. As to industry, excepting the knowledge that certain enterprising American farmers have of the Canadian Northwest, the American is poorly informed as to Canadian conditions, and has little conception, for example, of the wonderful railway systems stretching across the continent from St. John and Halifax to the Pacific and connecting the shipping of England and the Orient with continuous lines. All this deficiency on the part of the average American citizen and student will, it is hoped, be made up in the next few years.

There will be a strong effort made, in connection with the celebration of the Hundred Years of Peace, to bring about a better understanding in the United States of Canadian history and institutions. Preparations for the Centenary of Peace will inevitably correct many false impressions, and will give the people of both countries a larger point of view. It may cause history to be rewritten. Some passages in the text-books that retain the spirit of old-time prejudice that is now unworthy of us ought to be removed, particularly in the narratives of the revolution and the war of 1812. Although the peoples of our two countries have in these two

memorable conflicts been enemies, it must be remembered that it is our business to be friends to-day and in the future. Courage and devotion may well be commemorated in patriotic anniversaries. Then each nationality should stand by its own revered principles of government and put a halo of glory around the names of its own worthies, whether military or civic. But at the time of the anniversary of the Treaty of Ghent, let all animosities be forgotten and memorials of our unhappy conflicts give place to rejoicings over our long period of fraternity and peace.

THEOCRATIC QUEBEC

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It has been said that the privileges which the Catholic church enjoyed in the France of the old régime were conferred upon her as a reward for services against the barbarians. The same may be said of the Catholic church in Quebec, only that the barbarians in this case are the English. From the time of the conquest to the time of Papineau's rebellion competent observers believed that the French-Canadians would lose their nationality. Tocqueville, when he visited America in the early thirties, regarded them as "the wreck of an old people lost in the flood of a new nation." We are told that Garneau, as he "heard the dull booming of the rising tide of the Anglo-Saxon race," wondered if his history of Canada were not after all a funeral oration. That the prophets have been confounded, that the French-Canadians have remained French and clung to the language which they brought from their Norman and Breton homes, is largely the result of clerical leadership.

After the conquest the church became the natural leader of the people. Now that the military and civil officials, the merchants and capitalists, had returned to France, the peasants had nowhere else to look for guidance. Poor, illiterate, altogether untrained in the conduct of public affairs, they confided their future to men who were accustomed to wield authority and to exact obedience and who had every reason to oppose Anglicizing influences. The Catholic clergy were anxious to keep the peasants free from contact with the Protestant English. It was in this way that the peculiarly intimate alliance between clergy and people came about, destined to leave a deep impress upon the institutions and literature of the country. Patriotism and religion were joined together.

Before inquiring what the church has done to justify her assumption of leadership, something must be said of the numerical increase and the distribution of the French-Canadians. Without some knowledge of their phenomenal development it is impossible to appreciate the practical value of clerical leadership or to understand

the gratitude of the people and the tangible form which that gratitude has taken. In 1765 there were, within the present boundaries of Canada, less than 80,000 Frenchmen, descendants of the six thousand settlers who came from the mother country during the century and a half of the old régime. They were a conquered people, deprived of their leaders and without material resources. Since that time they have received no accession of strength from immigration; in the whole of Canada there were less than eight thousand "Français de France" at the opening of this century. Nevertheless, the handful of peasants have increased to more than three millions.¹ Dominant in the province of Quebec, where they constitute eighty per cent of the population (1,322,115 in 1901), they have thrust themselves westward into Ontario, where they control several border countries; eastward to join the resurgent Acadians who now form a quarter of the population of New Brunswick and more than half the population of the six northern counties of that province; and southward into New England where, drawn by economic forces which have now ceased to be operative, they settled in the factory towns, and now form something like a fifth of the population of Vermont, New Hampshire and Rhode Island. Careful estimates have shown that there are a million and a half French-Canadians in the United States. But, scattered among a rapidly-increasing population of different origin and no longer fortified by new blood from Quebec, there is little chance of their persistence as a separate nationality even in those parts of New England where they are most numerous.

It is in the cradle of the race, upon the banks of the St. Lawrence, that the hope of the future lies. Quebec is not an English-speaking province and presumably never will be. Nowhere else, in Canada or the United States, is there a people who can so fairly claim to be autochthonous. The French-Canadians, whose blood runs substantially pure and whose language is more nearly that of the seventeenth century than is the language of modern France, have built up in the last three centuries one of the vital resources of a people, a history of which they are proud. They cherish the days of Frontenac and La Galissonnière, of Brébœuf and Daulac des Ormeaux, in a peculiarly intimate way. Those who know the songs they sing and the literature they have produced will under-

¹ The figures given here are based upon the Canadian census of 1901, as the tables showing the distribution of races under the last census are not yet available.

stand how deep their love of the soil goes. As their poet Crémazie wrote in his "Le Canada":

Tu fais rayonner la lumière
De tes souvenirs glorieux,
Et tu racontes à la terre
Les grands exploits de nos aïeux.

All that has happened in Quebec since its cession to the English seems to indicate that assimilation will never take place. Sheltered behind a national organization which has called to its service religion, education, language, literature and national societies, and which is everywhere informed by a deep consciousness of race, the French-Canadians have preserved their distinctive characteristics and have contested successfully with their conquerors for possession of the soil. In the second half of the nineteenth century the English element declined from twenty-five to twenty per cent of the population. In five counties an English population does not exist; in a score of others it falls below five per cent, usually well below. In the country districts the tendency has been for the English majorities, where such existed, to become minorities and sink gradually into insignificance. "The danger of assimilation has completely disappeared," says M. Thomas Côté; "we are the masters of our destinies." The process by which the English have been supplanted upon the soil is best exemplified by the history of the Eastern Townships, the eleven counties which lie between Montreal and the American frontier and which were originally settled by immigrants from Great Britain and the United States. By 1851 the French had become a third of the population of the Townships; by 1861 nearly a half; by 1901 two-thirds. In many an old English center all that remains to show the past is a ruined Protestant church and an overgrown graveyard. If the present tendencies continue, the soil of the Townships will pass entirely to the invader.

What has brought about this movement? Aside from the superior fecundity of the French-Canadians (there is an authentic case of thirty-six children in a family), it cannot be ascribed to their superior energy. Those who know the obstinate conservatism and routine methods of the *habitant* would scout the idea. The truth is that the displacement was voluntary at first, the English-speaking farmer going elsewhere to better his condition, and was afterwards

enforced; and it was enforced, not by any survival of the fittest, but by the organization and activity of the Roman Catholic church. In fact, the church is the main factor in rooting the *habitant* to the soil and keeping him there. Her clearly developed plan, as the *cure* tells his flock in the country parishes, is to make the English and Protestant parts of the province Catholic and French. Colonization societies, in which the clerical element predominates, give assistance to poor colonists, contribute to the cost of churches and schools, and open up new roads. They act as bureaus of information. They know of every farm which has been offered for sale and have one of the faithful ready to occupy it. Behind the church stands the government, subsidizing the societies and contributing to the cause in other ways. The Papal Zouaves were rewarded with a block of township land.

In each locality the same thing happens. One by one the English families leave. One by one, directed by the church, the French families arrive. Finally a time comes when the English, losing their predominance, feel the pressure of the invasion. Left more and more in the minority, they find it hard, then actually impossible, to maintain the one Protestant church which ministers to the various denominations. The children, playing with French children, are in danger of becoming French. Thus the retreat, which was gradual and voluntary at first, finally develops into a frightened rout. Those who remain behind become, like the Highlanders of the county of Charlevoix, French in everything but name. From all parts of the province the English have been converging on the island of Montreal. In the twenty years preceding the census of 1901, although their increase for the province was only 41,500, they added 38,700 to the population of the city alone. To the population of the whole island, which is becoming more and more a mere suburb of the city, they added over 60,000—at the expense, of course, of other English districts. As long as conditions are unaltered this movement will continue. Only in Montreal have the English a position of apparent security and permanence. It is a curious situation. Perhaps in defending Montreal they feel unconsciously that they are defending the last ditch.

Equally notable have been the services of the church in the revival of the Acadian people. With the misfortunes of the Acadians everyone is familiar, whether from the poetry of Longfellow or the

narrative of Parkman. It was generally believed, as late as the middle of the last century, that those misfortunes had destroyed them; in fact the story of their astonishing survival was first recounted to the world in 1887 when Casgrain wrote his "*Pèlerinage au Pays d'Évangéline*." The few hundred peasants who were driven from their homes and scattered over the Atlantic seaboard in 1755 have developed into a vigorous people, proud of their history and confident of the future. They have their own flag, their own national holiday, their own newspapers; and in the public schools they are allowed French books and French teachers. All this is very remarkable; and it was accomplished entirely under the leadership of the church. It has given the church one more claim upon the gratitude of the French-Canadians, because the struggle to preserve a common nationality has obliterated the differences in origin and history which formerly separated the two French peoples of Canada and Acadie.

In order to give the French race and the French language (or, in other words, the Catholic church), a secure position in Quebec, the clergy have unceasingly combated the dangers of assimilation. They have sought to reduce as far as possible the points of contact between English and French. In 1910 the first Plenary Council of Quebec urged parents to keep their children free from dangerous association with Protestants. Some years ago Archbishop Fabre declared that "Catholics who understand their duties and responsibilities toward their children should aim at cutting the evil at the root by discouraging intimate relations with Protestants." His successor, Archbishop Bruchési, has spoken in the same sense. Excommunication lies against any Catholic contracting a marriage before a Protestant minister; and no priest may officiate at a "mixed marriage" between a Catholic and a Protestant unless an episcopal dispensation has been granted. In 1907 Archbishop Bruchési announced that "we will no longer, as in the past, grant dispensations for mixed marriages. Let them not hope to obtain these dispensations because they bring forward the weighty reasons of temporal advantage or mutual affection." For her own reasons the church prevented the establishment of a public library in Montreal in 1903, just as she struck down, a half century ago, the Institut Canadien where English and French radicals met together. Not only has a system of education been developed in which the French have their

own schools and colleges, but attendance at the Protestant English schools, which usually provide a better course of studies and more efficient instruction, is strictly prohibited. The penalty, established by the Councils of Quebec and approved by the Holy See, is refusal of the sacraments; and once a year the attention of the faithful is drawn to this point. The clergy have given every encouragement to the work of purifying the language of intrusive "Anglicisms," a movement which resembles the classical revival in Greece about a century ago. Among French-Canadian authors they have been represented by such men as Abbé Ferland and Abbé Casgrain.

For such notable services against the barbarians the church has received equally notable rewards. Above all, she has received the loyal support and affection of the people she has served. Cardinal Vanutelli, as he passed up the St. Lawrence to represent the Pope at the Eucharistic Congress of 1910, received from every parish on its shores a welcome which could have been equaled in no other country in the world. He said that it reminded him of a day in the Middle Ages. No better description could have been given to the spirit which animates Catholic Quebec. In no way has the church demonstrated her influence so impressively as in supervising the people's theatrical amusements and their reading. In the rôle of public censor she has destroyed powerful newspapers and muzzled others, disciplined the managers of theaters, forced authors to withdraw their books, and banished from the shops and libraries the novels of Honoré Balzac and the poems of Alfred de Musset. Why do newspapers like *La Presse* publish edifying discourses on the eucharist? Why is Montreal, the metropolis of Canada, unprovided with a public library? Why is the Théâtre de Nouveautés, once the home of good drama, given over to the exhibition of moving pictures? It is because episcopal interdicts, even at this day, are enforced by a sanction as effective as that which stands behind the laws of the state. The interdict may be dead in other countries, but it flourishes in Quebec. Observing the results of its employment, the mind travels back to the days of Innocent III.

Innumerable illustrations of this clerical censorship might be given. Allusion has been made to the Théâtre des Nouveautés. A few years ago, after being censured by the Archbishop on account of an objectionable production, the manager gave his word that no immoral play would ever be given in the theatre again. Not long

afterwards Bernstein's *La Rafale* was announced. This play, according to the Archbishop, "is nothing but a display of low sensuality and an apology for suicide." The theatre was promptly interdicted, not only for the week during which the play was to run, but indefinitely. All the French papers refrained from criticism of the play. An audience which was almost entirely English attended on the first evening; on the second the doors were closed; on the third the manager wrote to the Archbishop asking to have the interdict removed. It was removed, but on condition that the posting of plays should henceforth be approved by a committee of clerical censors. Shortly afterwards legitimate drama gave way to moving pictures.

Among the many newspapers which have fallen under archiepiscopal displeasure may be noted *Les Débats*, *Le Combat*, and *L'Action* which appeared successively between 1899 and 1904. They were managed and edited by Edouard Charlier, an old-country Frenchman, who had little knowledge of the limitations placed upon the freedom of the press in Quebec. He spoke violently against "the brutal invasion of the Transvaal," and was not molested. But when he eulogized certain dangerous French authors, mocked the Syllabus, attacked the memory of Archbishop Bourget at the moment when the diocese was erecting a monument to him, and ridiculed a letter of Archbishop Bruchési regarding Sunday observance, he found the church less patient under criticism than the state had been. The faithful were prohibited from buying *Les Débats*, selling it, or having it in possession. The paper ceased publication. Immediately afterwards Charlier launched another weekly called *Le Combat*. "It resembles its brother," cried a clerical organ in Montreal; "we are forced to believe in metempsychosis!" Indeed, in its short and merry career *Le Combat* gave good evidence that it possessed the spirit of the departed. There was little disguise of the fact that its dominating idea was hatred of the clergy and that it wished to warn the people against everything which savored of clerical control. Again the thunderbolt fell. And again, after reading the Archbishop a little lecture, M. Charlier managed to transfer the old spirit to a new body. *L'Action*, however, did not survive its first number. More famous was the case of *Le Canada-Revue* which, ruined by the interdict in 1892, carried its grievances to the courts only to find that no redress could be obtained. The Archbishop was held to have acted within his rights.

Much may be said in justification of clerical censorship. The church has undertaken a responsibility which the state has failed to assume. She has labored conscientiously to keep the people clean, to protect home life, to preserve simple manners and innocent tastes; and the high level of morality—using the word in its narrower sense—which prevails among the French population of Quebec bears good testimony to her services in the discharge of a great trust. Too often, in the clamor raised over her mistakes and her selfish behavior, that achievement has been overlooked. But it would be quite as wrong to overlook instances of excessive zeal and unnecessary oppression, acts of violence done where no public interest appeared to be at stake and where the battle was fought from the questionable motive of preserving power or punishing *leze majesty*.

The dangers of clerical censorship must be fairly obvious, even to those who are not familiar with its actual operation. The church is an irresponsible organization, asserting over civil society an authority ordained by divine will, resisting with all her power any attempt to diminish that authority, and resenting every word of criticism and every act of resistance. The educational system of Quebec, for instance, having fallen under the control of the clergy, is invested by them with a quasi-religious character; and to touch "the sacred arch of education," as Senator Poirier ironically calls it, or to discuss glaring defects and pressing reforms with any degree of frankness requires a good deal of courage; the church will at once assume that the criticism is leveled against herself. How then will it fare with those who throw discredit upon the teaching of the church,—as was impliedly done in Bernstein's *Rafale*—or bring to light scandals in the ranks of the clergy themselves, as was done by *Le Canada-Revue*? "Prick lightly the skin of an ecclesiastic, even in his first year," said Arthur Buies; "and the whole church puffs out, makes a great noise, and launches her thunderbolts."

That these thunderbolts are effective is due, of course, to the attitude of obedience and acquiescence which prevails among the people. But to many acts of the clergy the state has undertaken to give a legal sanction. Thus, parish priests are not supported by voluntary offerings, but by payment of the tithe which the civil courts will enforce; and churches are not built by popular subscription, but by levying a regular tax upon the freeholders of the parish and collecting it by legal process if necessary. The tithe, which has

always existed in Canada, amounts to a twenty-sixth of the harvested cereals; in some parts of the province it has been extended to include hay. In cases where it is insufficient to support the priest or where the heads of families pay no tithe at all, which applies particularly to towns and cities, it is customary to levy a kind of personal tithe known as the capitation; and apparently the courts will enforce its payment. It should also be noted that the organization of the parish and its administration are regulated by statute. There is no real separation of church and state in Quebec.

In the same way the state has legalized the ascendancy of the church in educational matters. Under the system of separate schools which was established nearly three-quarters of a century ago the control of Catholic schools has been entrusted to a committee which the bishops of the province absolutely dominate. The bishops are directly responsible, therefore, for the studies which are prescribed and for the books which are authorized. Under their hands the main purpose of the primary schools seems to be to prepare children for their first communion. "Religious instruction shall hold the principal place among the subjects of the course," the regulations say, "and shall be regularly given in every school. The catechism lessons of children preparing for their first communion shall receive special attention. When it is deemed necessary, children preparing for their first communion shall be exempted from a part of their other class exercises." As the parish priest has the right to visit the school, inspect all documents, and both choose the books and direct the teacher in all matters of religion and morals, the regulations are well enforced. In the language of a competent observer the catechism "forms the staple of the course of study, with a little of the three R's in the intervals between it and prayers." After the first communion few—of the boys at least—continue to attend school.

The inefficiency of the primary schools is patent, even appalling. "We are ready to acknowledge," says the *Montreal Witness*, "that, compared with ideal conditions, our attitude toward education is disgraceful and, further, that in these days of necessary competition with all other peoples it involves a national peril." The incompetency of the teachers may be proved sufficiently from the reports of the school inspectors. "One-half the teachers seem ignorant of the first ideas of the course of studies," we read. "There are

thirty-seven who have no diplomas and who, with few exceptions, teach only a little reading and writing as well as the catechism to the children preparing for the first communion." "There are too many persons who have no vocation for teaching and are accepted because no better ones can be got." It should be noted that 4,600 monks and nuns are teaching in the public schools without diplomas. They are exempted by statute from the necessity of securing diplomas, an exemption for which they give no guarantee of efficiency. In the primary schools where the teachers are almost entirely women the average salary of a woman teacher possessing a diploma is \$177 in the towns and \$125 in the country. A bricklayer earns in an hour twice as much as one of these teachers earns in a day.

In higher education the French-Canadians seldom go afield from their own university, Laval, and the nineteen classical colleges which are affiliated with it. These are entirely under clerical domination. Laval, though raised to the status of a university only in the middle of the nineteenth century, can boast of a long history, beginning with the foundation of the *Petit Séminaire* in 1668. It does not belie its ecclesiastical origin. The final supervision of doctrine and discipline rests with a Superior Council composed of the archbishops and bishops of the civil province, under the presidency of the Archbishop of Quebec, who, besides being Apostolic Chancellor and Visitor, enjoys the power of veto over all rules and nominations. At the opening of the year the professors go to the archiepiscopal palace and deposit at the feet of the Visitor their oath of fidelity. Frenchmen who have come out to occupy the chairs of French literature established through the efforts of Abbé Colin, Superior of the Sulpicians in Montreal, have found their position intolerable. One, beginning his course with the nineteenth century, was forced to change to the seventeenth. There was great scandal when de Labriolle delivered a eulogy on Paul Louis Courier, and when M. Leger made references to Zola and Anatole France. In 1904, when a medical congress holding its sessions at Laval resolved that all teachers, even those in orders, ought to have a certificate of health, the vice-rector at first closed the doors against the doctors, though he was finally prevailed upon to rescind the order. The students are forbidden to make use of any library other than that of the university itself, which is certainly not calculated to undermine their morals or their orthodoxy. Laval has a branch at Montreal which

was founded in 1876 and has outgrown the mother institution, becoming practically independent.

The classical colleges are formed after a pattern taken from the old world. Children may enter at the age of seven and eventually proceed to the bachelor's degree or enter the church. Little more than forty per cent of the students are above sixteen years of age. Practically all the instructors are in orders. The students are all formed in the same mold, and subjected to a discipline that too often breaks their spirit and initiative. Their education is classical, even to the point of having classes conducted in Latin. Modern literature and modern philosophy are eschewed.

Already criticism, insistent criticism, is being directed against these homes of obscurantism, not only by radical reformers, but also by men whose temperament is conservative and whose attachment to the church still survives. Their assault on the school system is fundamental. It is in the schools that the clergy take hold of the young and mold them to obedience. They exercise almost complete control; prescribing the studies, authorizing the books, and bringing to bear upon the students influences which are calculated to leave a permanent impress. In fact, the schools of Quebec develop loyalty to the church in the same way that the schools of other countries develop loyalty to the state. The radicals, who wish to break the spell of clerical ascendancy over the people, aim more immediately at modernizing the schools and relieving the French-Canadians of the handicap of inferior education. Hence the agitation for a Minister of Education, in the place of the bishops, and for free and obligatory instruction. "It is indisputably established," said the clerical organ *La Verité*, "that obligatory instruction is preached by the Freemasons especially, and that the countries which have allowed this measure to be imposed on them have demonstrated its failure. . . . It is by means of obligatory instruction above all that the adversaries of religious instruction hope to take the child from paternal authority and the salutary influence of the church, in order to throw him into the arms of the state." It must be admitted that "the salutary influence of the church" is the chief point of attack. That salutary influence, far from taking the lead in effecting necessary reforms, has thrown its mantle about the schools and made criticism a sacrilege. It is dangerous to criticise or even to suggest improvements; and so a growing number of radi-

cals believe that the schools must be laicized before they can be made efficient.

It is in Montreal, where Protestant and Catholic schools stand side by side inviting comparison and where competition in commerce and industry makes the French feel the inadequacy of their training, that the reform movement has gathered most headway. The Board of School Commissioners, though the ecclesiastical members dissented, established a short while ago practical freedom of instruction and uniformity of books. Previously the religious orders had made some profit, *ad maiorem dei gloriam*, as *Le Pays* remarked irreverently, by getting authorization for the books which they printed and sold without any taxation by the state. But the great victory of the radical programme, apparently the first step in a revolution, was the founding of the *Ecole des Hautes Etudes Commerciales* in 1908. It is true that an Abbé of the church blessed the corner-stone; but the ceremony was strangely free from the usual clerical tone, and the school itself is entirely under lay control. The members of the governing corporation are nominated by the French-Canadian Chamber of Commerce and appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor.

The significance of this will appear best from the comments of the clerical papers. Said *La Verité*: "We see in the constitution of the *Ecole des Hautes Etudes* that the representatives of religious authority have been completely overlooked. They have been excluded from an institution in which, however, they ought to have a voice in certain branches of the prescribed programme of studies. There is an unfortunate tendency to exaggerate the rights of the state in education to the detriment of the rights of the church." What "the rights of the state" are may be gathered from the declaration of the Superintendent of Public Instruction that the sole right of the state in matters of education is to furnish the funds. "Before sending their children to this school," said *L'Action Sociale*, "Catholics will wish to assure themselves that its atmosphere is not deleterious. If the atmosphere is poisoned with neutrality, parents and children will go elsewhere. . . . The church has the right to complain if she and all religion are excluded positively from an establishment where neither the director nor the professors admit her influence and her authority."

In still another direction the authority of the church has been clothed with legal sanction. In their interpretation of the Civil

Code of the province the courts have long recognized her full pretensions in the regulation of the marriage tie. Down to the year 1901 it seemed thoroughly established that, in deciding on the validity of an alleged marriage between two Catholics, the courts should be guided by the decision of the competent ecclesiastical tribunal and reserve to themselves only the right of pronouncing as to the civil effects,—marriage portion, right of succession, etc. In that year, however, the case of *Delpit v. Côté* came before the Superior Court. The parties, though both Catholic, had been married before a Unitarian minister in Montreal. The plaintiff, claiming that, in accordance with ecclesiastical rules, the marriage should have been celebrated in a Catholic church and before the proper priest of one of the parties, secured a decree of nullity from the Archbishop. He then demanded, and in the light of precedent had every right to expect, annulment by the court as to the civil effects. The court took a very different view, a view which was received with consternation by the clergy. It held that "the marriage upon a license of two Roman Catholics by a Protestant minister is not illegal as having been solemnized by an incompetent official." This decision was rendered by Judge Archibald, an English judge. But although a French judge rendered a contrary judgment on a similar point a month and a half later, it seems from a very recent decision that through the force of its argument and its reliance on broad principles of law that *Delpit v. Côté* will leave its impress upon the jurisprudence of the future. The slowly-developing spirit of anti-clericalism has begun to make itself felt upon the bench.

Anti-clerical sentiment is growing in Quebec. Excessive pretensions, intemperate craving for power, the determination of the clergy to make their will dominant where modern practice allows freedom of choice to the individual—these things have raised up enemies. "If the chiefs of the church heard the talk to which these abuses give rise," wrote Senator David, "if they knew what good Catholics and irreproachable parents are repeating freely, they would be frightened. Unhappily the truth reaches them with difficulty, through the smoke of the incense which envelops them; respect and fear of displeasing them or giving them pain too often close the mouths of the worthy men who surround them. . . . The danger which menaces the influence of the clergy and of religion itself is great, serious, incontestable." French-Canadians

are beginning to wonder if clerical dictatorship has not become an anachronism; if the large powers which were entrusted to the church at a time when the very existence of the nationality was in peril should not be recalled now that the circumstances have changed. To-day their danger is mainly economic; and the church has shown no disposition to meet the danger by raising the standard of education and giving it the practical character which would prepare the students for industrial or commercial careers. She is too much concerned with the preservation of her powers and with the enforcement of obedience at the expense of individual initiative and self-reliance. She is not disposed to lay down her dictatorship like a Garibaldi or a Cincinnatus. The result is that the French-Canadian Freemasons, converted by missionaries from France and possessed of all the conviction of early Christians, are meeting secretly in the catacombs to plot her destruction.

CANADIANS IN THE UNITED STATES¹

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It was the French Canadian *coureurs de bois* who opened up the western trade routes from Hudson's Bay to Louisiana. That was two centuries ago, before the United States was yet a dream of the future. These French Canadians laid the first foundations of a line of great cities, among which may be named Detroit, Sault Ste. Marie, Chicago, St. Paul, Pittsburgh and New Orleans. That early chapter is, however, long since closed, except for the faint traces of race one still notices occasionally on the Mississippi. As regards population, the United States more than repaid the debt after the peace of 1783, when United Empire Loyalists founded Upper Canada and New Brunswick and settled the eastern townships of Quebec. For the subject in hand we come down to much closer years, of which we have more or less exact information, and need not run our eye further back than a few years before British North America became the Dominion of Canada. But both the earlier and the later ends of this great story of interchange of population between the two countries, still await the historian's pen.

To put results bluntly, during the second half of last century at least 1,800,000 Canadians moved across the border into the United States. The exodus stands as one of the notable facts in Canada's history. For a time it dismayed a large section of the Canadian people and brought them almost to despair of a political future. But that chapter is closed. Canada is now attracting population alike from Europe and the United States, and is progressing so rapidly that its growth has come to be one of the outstanding events in the recent history of the new world. Accordingly it will be of interest to look back and review briefly the great Canadian exodus, the localities the emigrants have selected for their new homes, the occupations they are following, and their intermarriage with citizens of the United States.

¹ This paper, here revised and reprinted, first appeared in the *Political Science Quarterly* in 1906, vol. xxi.—EDITOR.

The whole topic of the movement of populations—local as well as international—is indeed instructive, for it tells the life-story of a people. It is an epitome of conditions. In a measure migrations reflect the course of affairs at home and at times relations between countries as well. Not infrequently they result from mistaken notions or imperfect knowledge, but wholly blind are they rarely; and whatever their causes, they offer much to interest and to instruct. Modern migrations appear to differ from those of earlier centuries. In ancient times whole peoples, entire tribes, pushed and pressed from east to west in search of fresh lands. Such was the origin of nationalities in Europe. Later on, in the middle ages, when life had become more settled, only particular classes wandered widely, such as knights on crusades or on chivalrous errands, journeymen craftsmen, jugglers, minstrels and merchants. At present, if there be any rule, it is that, irrespective of class, migrations have come to be a matter of private concern. We see individuals and single families changing their homes. A great variety of motives are operative; but through them all runs one common characteristic—the desire to secure a better market for abilities. The nation of origin loses a certain amount of energy which would have been spent in developing its resources; the individual gains what he regards as a better chance.

Levasseur, the French geographer and economist, has attempted to formulate a law of migration. He points out that, as in the world of matter, the bigger the mass the greater the force of attraction, which is only another way of saying that people flock to the cities and generally seek out the largest market for their labor. This law, if law it may be called, must be stated guardedly, since, for example, a densely populated country may more often repel than attract. It will suffice perhaps simply to say that migration is the attempt to adjust population to opportunity—a process of adaptation, a phase of industrialism.

Geographical influences on shiftings of population must not be lost sight of. Climate counts. Though the point has not yet been argued, there is much to support the view that, apart from economic considerations, northern peoples tend to be more mobile than southern. Not that winter drives the northerner into exile. To one enjoying a fair measure of health, few delights are keener than the feelings of exhilaration and the sports of a northern, let us say

of an average Canadian winter. The tingling climate and the stimulating procession of the seasons arouse one into habits of vigorous action. As for Canadians, there is a sprinkling on every continent. For instance in England and Wales there are nearly 19,000; in Australia over 3,000; nearly 1,500 in New Zealand, and in Alaska 2,000 more.

The migration of Canadians to the more developed market of the United States is of two kinds, temporary and permanent, the one shading imperceptibly into the other. With the coming of settled industrial conditions in the republic temporary migration fell away sharply; but in spite of "alien labor" laws they are still important along the border and in such centers as New York, Boston, Pittsburgh, Chicago and San Francisco.

In 1900 there were 10,356,644 foreigners who had become domiciled in the United States. Of these 1,181,255, or 11.4 per cent, were Canadian-born. Out of this number 785,958 were English, and 395,297 were French Canadians. By "Canadian" the census always means "born either in Canada or Newfoundland" although Newfoundland is not yet part of the Dominion. In estimating the number of Canadians we must take it into account that many British-born Canadians, after living in Canada for a number of years, have moved south and have been enumerated there as British, not as Canadians. One may hazard the estimate that their number is one-eighth of that of the Canadian-born English-speaking immigrants, *i. e.*, 100,000. With 450,000 children born in the United States of these Canadian parents the total thus becomes 1,731,000; 995,000 (57 per cent) being English Canadians, and 736,000 (43 per cent) French Canadians.² There is still another group of 813,350 who have one Canadian-born parent. But in fairness these cannot be called Canadians and may therefore be left out of count. An allowance, however, will have to be made for the many other Canadians by birth, who, report has it, prefer to report themselves as British and are so enumerated. They bring the grand total up to at least 1,800,000 Canadians at present living in the United States, that is one-third of the population of the Dominion as it stood in 1901.³

² To allow a contrast with these percentages it is to be noted that in Canada the French Canadians form 30.7 per cent of the total population.

³ If we include those with one Canadian parent the sum total would be upwards of 2,600,000, one million of these being "French," the balance "English" Canadians.

But how may one estimate the number of those who have emigrated to the United States between 1850 and 1900? The census gives a return showing the decennial increase in the number of foreigners. We may assume the average age of the Canadian immigrants to be twenty-five years. Using then an ordinary mortality table we may calculate the number of those from each decennial increase who should be living to-day:

Decade	Canadian Emigrants to U. S., according to U. S. Census	Alive 1900, according to Mortality Table
1850-60.....	102,000	41,786
1860-70.....	243,000	153,710
1870-80.....	224,000	175,054
1880-90.....	264,000	233,426
1890-00.....	200,000	193,132
Total.....	1,033,000	797,108

These figures mean that an immigration of 1,033,000 persons yields a present population of 797,108. The problem is to know how many are necessary to produce the present population of 1,800,000, less their 450,000 children. This number we find to be 1,750,000. Adding the 450,000 children the grand total loss of population to Canada is found to be 2,200,000 for the half century, one and three-quarters or more millions being lost directly, the balance through immediate natural increase. Of the 2,200,000 the English compose approximately 1,200,000, the French approximately 1,000,000.

Every adult costs his native country at least \$1,000 to nourish and educate. So, after making allowance for the 100,000 of British birth and education, Canada may be said to have invested in the American Republic living capital assessable at \$1,650,000,000—a sufficiently severe drain on a young nation! This enormous loss Canada has withstood, although at the same time it has been steadily carrying on extensive public works. It makes one marvel at the recuperative power of young fertile countries. The loss amounts to half Mr. Giffen's estimate of the crushing burden placed on France by the Franco-Prussian war. There is a contra account, of course, for United States emigration into Canada. The Canadian census

of 1901 places their number at 127,899. At \$1,000 per head this means \$128,000,000, or, with an additional allowance of one-third for the years back to 1850, \$170,000,000, which is about 10 per cent of Canada's loss.

Canadian emigration to the United States has been remarkably constant. The United States census records periodical increases for the previous ten years of 102,259 in 1860; of 243,494 in 1870; of 223,693 in 1880; of 263,781 in 1890, and of 200,317 in 1900. The largest exodus from Canada seems to have occurred therefore during the ten years 1880-90, or perhaps more precisely 1875-85. The steady flow has resulted in Canadians constituting a growing percentage of the whole body of foreigners in the United States. In 1850 they formed 6.6 per cent of all foreigners; in 1860, 6 per cent; in 1870, 8.9 per cent; in 1880, 10.7 per cent; in 1890, 10.6 per cent, and in 1900, 11.4 per cent. The increase, as the following table shows, is paralleled by the Scandinavians alone. Between 1850 and 1900 the percentage of Germans amongst the foreign-born fell slightly—from 26 to 25.8 per cent; of Irish, from 42.8 to 15.6 per cent; of British, from 16.8 to 11.3 per cent; but the percentage of Scandinavians jumped from .9 to 10.3 per cent; and that of Canadians from 6.06 to 11.04 per cent. The relative increase of Canadians, even between 1890 and 1900, is marked, as the following table shows:

CANADIANS IN THE UNITED STATES, 1890-1900

	1890	1900	Increase from 1890-1900	Per Cent Increase
English Canadians.....	678,442	785,958	107,516	15.8
French Canadians.....	302,496	395,297	92,801	30.7
Total.....	980,938	1,181,255	200,317	20.4
Swedes (next highest).....	478,041	573,040	94,999	19.7
Foreigners generally.....	9,249,547	10,356,644	1,107,097	12.0

The United States immigration statistics give only 3,064 Canadians as settling in that country between 1891-1900; but the census returns show these figures to be entirely astray. In fact the insuperable difficulties in the way of counting people who enter the States by way of Canada make the United States annual returns of Cana-

dian immigrants unreliable, and of late years the attempt to compile them has been abandoned. The official immigration figures may be worth giving, however, for purpose of comparison with other nationalities.

IMMIGRANTS TO THE UNITED STATES

	1821-1900	Per Cent	1891-1900	Per Cent	1881-1890	Per Cent
Aggregate.....	19,115,221	100.0	3,687,564	100.0	5,246,613	100.0
Canada & Newf'l'd	1,049,939	...	3,064	.1	392,802	7.5
Ireland.....	3,871,253	...	390,179	10.6	655,482	12.5
Great Britain.....	3,024,222	...	270,019	7.3	807,357	15.4
Germany.....	5,009,280	...	505,152	13.7	1,452,970	27.7
	1871-1880	Per Cent	1861-1870	Per Cent	1851-1860	Per Cent
Aggregate.....	2,812,191	100.0	2,314,824	100.0	2,598,214	100.0
Canada & Newf'l'd	383,269	13.6	153,871	6.7	59,309	2.3
Ireland.....	436,871	15.5	435,778	18.8	914,119	35.2
Great Britain.....	548,043	19.5	606,896	26.2	423,974	16.3
Germany.....	718,182	25.6	787,468	34.0	851,667	36.6

General Distribution of the Canadians

And now as to the localities chosen by Canadians for their new home. Of the English Canadians 88 per cent are divided equally between the North Atlantic and the North Central states, 10 per cent are in the West, 2 per cent in the South. The North Atlantic section will include a large number of "Blue Noses" (Nova Scotians and Brunswickers); though, as the "wise old Nova Scotian owl" *Tramp Abroad* hints, there is many a Nova Scotian miner in the mining camps of the West. Of the French Canadians 77 per cent live along the Atlantic, nearly three-fourths of these being found in seven cities, Manchester, N. H., Fall River, Holyoke, Lowell, New Bedford, Worcester and Lawrence, Mass. Upwards of 20 per cent are in the North Central regions, less than 3 per cent in the West and less than 1 per cent in the South. The small percentage of Canadians in the Southern states (2 per cent of the English, 1 per cent of the French), hardly does justice to the cordiality between Southerners and Canadians which is dated from the time of the civil war.

It is to be remembered that, if regard is had to British Canadians

and children of immigrant Canadians, the numbers in each of these divisions may probably be safely increased one-half.

Division and State	English Canadians	French Canadians	Total
NORTH ATLANTIC STATES.....	345,342	305,160	650,502
Massachusetts.....	158,753	134,416	293,169
New York.....	90,336	27,199	117,535
Maine.....	36,169	30,908	67,077
Vermont.....	10,616	14,924	25,540
Pennsylvania.....	13,292	1,468	14,760
SOUTH ATLANTIC STATES.....	6,284	636	6,920
Florida.....	1,014	88	1,102
Maryland.....	1,143	87	1,230
Virginia.....	1,026	104	1,130
NORTH CENTRAL STATES.....	345,304	77,019	422,323
Michigan.....	151,915	32,483	184,398
Illinois.....	41,466	9,129	50,595
Ohio.....	19,864	2,903	22,767
North Dakota.....	25,004	3,162	28,166
South Dakota.....	5,906	1,138	7,044
Minnesota.....	35,515	12,063	47,578
Wisconsin.....	23,860	10,091	33,951
Kansas.....	7,053	1,485	8,538
SOUTH CENTRAL STATES.....	8,802	1,460	10,262
Texas.....	2,549	400	2,949
Oklahoma.....	1,248	179	1,427
Kentucky.....	1,072	136	1,208
Louisiana.....	781	253	1,034
Arkansas.....	932	161	1,093
WESTERN STATES.....	79,098	10,791	89,800
California.....	27,408	2,410	29,818
Washington.....	18,385	1,899	20,284
Montana.....	10,310	3,516	13,826
Colorado.....	8,837	960	9,797
Oregon.....	6,634	874	7,508
Idaho.....	2,528	395	2,923
Utah.....	1,203	128	1,331

Canadians in United States Cities in 1900

It is usually taken for granted that most Canadians go to the great commercial centers. The reverse is the case. Over half are to be found in the country and in the smaller towns. Only 40 per cent of the English and 37.7 per cent of the French Canadians live in the 160 largest cities, that is in cities with 25,000 or more population. I give here a selection of cities that have the largest Canadian constituencies. But, as already pointed out, the British

Canadian and pure Canadian stock would probably raise the number in each city fifty per cent.

City of Residence, 1900	English Canadians		French Canadians		Total Number of Canadians	Estimated Num- ber of Pure Canadian Stock
	Number	Being per cent of Foreigners	Number	Being per cent of Foreigners		
Boston.....	47,374	24.0	2,908	1.5	50,282	65,000
Cambridge.....	9,613	31.5	1,483	4.9	11,096	16,000
Chicago.....	29,472	5.0	5,307	.9	34,779	55,000
Detroit.....	25,403	26.3	3,541	3.7	28,944	45,000
Buffalo.....	16,509	15.8	733	.7	17,242	30,000
New York.....	19,399	1.5	2,527	.2	21,926	38,000
Jersey City.....	907	1.6	134	.2	1,041	1,500
Newark.....	802	1.1	160	.2	962	1,300
Paterson.....	385	1.0	174	.5	559	800
Cleveland.....	7,839	6.3	772	.6	8,611	13,000
Philadelphia.....	2,989	1.0	294	.1	3,283	5,000
Cincinnati.....	928	1.6	103	.2	1,031	1,500
Rochester.....	7,746	19.0	553	1.4	8,299	12,000
Lowell.....	4,485	11.0	14,674	35.8	19,159	30,000
Worcester.....	3,163	8.4	5,204	13.8	8,367	12,000
Fall River.....	2,329	4.6	20,172	40.3	22,501	33,000
Providence.....	3,882	6.9	3,850	6.9	7,732	11,000
New Haven.....	754	2.4	416	1.3	1,170	1,700
Minneapolis.....	5,637	9.2	1,706	2.8	7,343	11,000
St. Paul.....	3,557	7.6	1,015	2.2	4,572	6,800
Milwaukee.....	1,687	1.9	217	.2	1,904	2,800
St. Louis.....	2,151	1.9	339	.3	2,490	3,600
Pittsburgh.....	994	1.2	79	.1	1,073	1,500
Washington, D. C.....	809	4.0	97	.5	906	1,300
New Orleans.....	310	1.0	85	.3	385	600
Louisville.....	365	1.7	45	.2	410	600
San Francisco.....	4,770	4.1	429	.4	5,199	8,000

The proportion of farmers among the Canadians in the United States is shown by the following figures. Briefly upwards of one-fourth of the English Canadians and one-sixth of the French Canadians live on farms. The census accounts for 367,170 Canadian families, 207,580 being English and 159,590 French. Twenty-four per cent of the one, and 16 per cent of the other live on farms. It is a remarkable fact that such a large percentage lead a rural life when

one considers that Canada is itself so largely an agricultural country. On the whole, if we contrast the two Canadian races, there are proportionately more French Canadians in the smaller towns, and proportionately more English Canadians carrying on farming or living in the large cities.

The Occupations of Canadians

A comparison of the occupations of Canadians in the United States and in Canada, brings home the significance of the migration and sets it in a new light. The United States census takes note of 819,264 Canadians ten years of age or over. Forty per cent follow manufacturing; 30 per cent personal service; between 17 and 18 per cent trade and transportation; about the same percentage agriculture; and somewhat over 4 per cent professions. The last percentage is approximately the same as for the native-born white population in the United States. The large numbers in any one occupation compared with the number left behind, as shown in the adjoined table, throw light on conditions in Canada; for example, the number of expatriated Canadian teachers and college professors, lawyers and clergymen. Curious is the number of Canadians as government officials, soldiers and marines, as is also the great number of Canadian girls of a superior class who have gone to the United States as nurses. Rumor has it that many of these are enumerated as Americans "from northern New York" for which one might venture to say there is geographically a show of reason!

Of the 300,000 Canadians engaged in business or following professional pursuits in the United States many hold prominent posts. Indeed one hears at times the statement that the English Canadians enjoy an exceptionally high reputation. Some reasons occur why this should be the case, and, without suggesting comparison, why the average English Canadian in the United States is a good type. (1) Those who go to seek their fortune in a foreign country are presumably hardy and ambitious, the result of a process of natural selection. (2) They have been bred under invigorating climatic influences. (3) They find a wider market for their abilities. (4) They are in a country where traditionally greater responsibility is placed on young shoulders than has been usual in Canada down

PERSONS TEN YEARS OF AGE OR OVER WITH ONE PARENT OR WITH BOTH PARENTS CANADIAN BORN^a

INDUSTRIAL BRANCH	ENGLISH CANADIANS		FRENCH CANADIANS		Total	Per Cent	Number having same Occupation Remaining in Canada in 1891 ^b	Number of Employees Engaged in Indicated Occupation in Canada, 1901
	Males	Females	Males	Females				
AGRICULTURE.....	97,645	2,306	44,267	793	145,011	17.7	790,210
Lumbermen and raftsmen.....	5,223	5	2,842	2	8,072	12,319
MANUFACTURING AND MECHANICAL ARTS.....	114,518	30,166	130,381	58,749	333,814	40.7	320,001	369,595
Miners and quarrymen.....	5,090	1	2,521	1	77,613	15,168
Fishermen and oystermen.....	2,761	14	924	3	3,702
Boot and shoemakers and repairers.....	4,757	2,085	9,076	2,643	18,561	15,816	18,041
Saw and planing-mill employees.....	4,489	6	4,904	9	9,408	13,338	53,042
Paper and pulp mill operatives.....	1,378	261	2,272	581	4,492	690	2,817
Printers, lithographers and pressmen.....	3,348	648	996	144	5,136
Textile trades.....	4,270	5,101	43,378	41,509	94,258
Cotton mill operatives.....	1,511	1,602	30,147	29,331	33,191	6,053	8,502
Hosiery and knitting-mill operatives.....	259	884	1,148	2,416	4,707	946	2,162
Silk mill operatives.....	109	322	403	844	1,678	121	322
Woolen mill operatives.....	1,051	1,015	4,693	3,440	10,199	4,241	7,182
Carpet factory operatives.....	73	83	145	111	412	915
Bleachery and dye works.....	225	30	860	65	1,180
Other textile branches.....	1,042	1,165	5,982	5,302	13,491
DOMESTIC AND PERSONAL SERVICE.....	56,912	41,461	49,549	12,970	160,892	19.6	246,183
Nurses and midwives.....	479	5,003	57	579	6,118	2,157
Soldiers, sailors and marines (U. S.).....	2,902	802	3,714
Hotel-keepers.....	923	149	520	50	1,642
Saloon-keepers.....	993	13	1,134	12	2,152	6,818

PERSONS TEN YEARS OF AGE OR OVER WITH ONE PARENT OR WITH BOTH PARENTS CANADIAN BORN—Concluded

INDUSTRIAL BRANCH	ENGLISH CANADIANS		FRENCH CANADIANS		Total	Per Cen	Number having same Occupation Remain- ing in Canada in 1891*	Number of Employees Engaged in Indicated Occupations in Canada, 1901
	Males	Females	Males	Females				
Bartenders.....	1,316	8	1,203	6	2,533	1,553
Restaurant-keepers.....	532	116	239	38	925	693
TRADE AND TRANSPORTATION.....	87,691	15,972	36,711	4,233	144,607	17.6	186,695
Bankers and brokers.....	990	6	265	1	1,262	923
Officials of banks and companies.....	1,604	32	256	6	1,898	913
Boatmen and sailors.....	2,890	4	946	3,840
Wholesale merchants.....	680	4	216	900	1,712
Steam railway employees.....	10,271	32	5,443	7	15,753	29,752
PROFESSIONS.....	16,735	12,353	3,614	2,238	34,940	4.2	116,266
Teachers and college professors.....	1,784	9,210	295	1,641	12,930	22,183
Music teachers.....	610	1,573	282	355	2,820	3,325
Literary and scientific people.....	289	162	58	19	528	279
Artists and teachers of art.....	272	341	64	47	724	953
Actors and professional showmen.....	733	251	224	50	1,258
Government officials.....	1,248	177	267	32	1,724	441
Physicians and surgeons.....	2,880	246	725	42	3,893	4,448
Lawyers.....	1,630	27	233	1	1,891	4,332
Dentists.....	1,038	30	141	5	1,214	753
Journalists.....	606	74	95	6	781	786
Civil engineers and surveyors.....	1,040	2	151	1,191	2,856
Electricians.....	1,621	10	364	5	2,000	7,567
Clergymen.....	1,829	126	497	12	2,464	7,164
Architects, designers and draftsmen.....	676	27	147	9	858	843

*The census does not give figures on those having both parents Canadian born.

*The 1901 census figures on occupations are not yet completely compiled. They will, of course, show considerable change.

to recent years. (5) Race and language are in their favor, especially in the West. (6) They have had the benefits of a good common school and, in special cases, of a thorough collegiate education. (7) Coming from a more agricultural country they may be expected to be healthy and thrifty. (8) In old Canada religious influences are strong. (9) Finally it is just possible that the comparative absence down to quite recently of the marked influence of corporate organization of business in Canada has instilled into the Canadian youth a lively sense of personal responsibility.

Who's Who in America mentions 245 Canadians. To this number we would have to add the allowance already made of one-eighth for those born in Great Britain but brought up in, and therefore rightly to be credited to Canada. This would make the number of Canadians according to the standards of this publication 276 or 2.3 for every 10,000 Canadians in the United States. This compares favorably with the British rate of 2.2 per 10,000, 2.1 for the Dutch, .5 for Swedes and .9 for native Americans (black and white) or 1.9 for native white Americans. The record made by the Canadians seems particularly notable when it is remembered that nearly 60 per cent (58.4 per cent of the French Canadians and 56.5 per cent of the English Canadians) are under twenty-one years of age as against 10 per cent for all foreign-born and 52 per cent for all native-born. The railway magnate of the West is a Canadian, as was the late Erastus Wiman. Edison received his first schooling in telegraphy in Ontario. The inventor of the Bell telephone also lived a while in the same province, lecturing for two years at Queen's University; and the first Atlantic cable was promoted in the United States by a Nova Scotian. Canadians preside over two of the foremost American universities; while Harvard and many other seats of learning have a goodly array of Canadian talent in their faculties. Professor Osler who left Baltimore to grace the chair of medicine in Oxford is a Canadian, as is also his successor. At least one of the great national banks of the United States has a Canadian president; and a number of prominent banking and financial houses have Canadian vice-presidents, cashiers and other officials. A full list of distinguished Canadians in the United States would indeed have to include also littérateurs, clergymen, actors, members of Congress and even one diplomatic representative of the Republic.

The Inter-marriage of Canadians and Americans

The marriages of Canadian immigrants show interesting variations. Most of the English-speaking Canadians "cross the line" unmarried and after establishing themselves take wives from among their new acquaintances. The majority of the French Canadians migrate after marrying or marry one of their own race in the United States. This is evident from the fact that three-fourths of the 812,350 children one of whose parents is a Canadian have English Canadian parents. Grouping all Canadians of the present generation together, 48.1 per cent have married in the United States. This is a large proportion compared with other nationalities. For example, only 36 per cent of the English marry in the United States; 36 per cent of the French and 32 per cent of the Scotch. The Canadians, in the great majority of instances when they do not marry native Americans, marry people of British extraction. The actual intermarriage of the 135,521 Canadian men was as follows:

MARRIAGE OF CANADIAN MEN IN UNITED STATES WITH WOMEN OF FOREIGN BIRTH

Nationality of Women	Number of Men	Per Cent
Irish.....	49,213	71
English.....	30,630	
Scotch.....	15,718	
Welsh.....	1,099	
Canadian.....	15,488	11½
German.....	11,569	9
Scandinavian.....	3,958	9
French.....	3,246	2½
Swiss.....	708	3
Russians, Bohemians and Poles.....	637	
Austro-Hungarian.....	302	
Italian.....	119	
Others.....	2,834	

It is worth noting that in 1900 as many as 90.8 per cent of the English Canadians had become naturalized and 84 per cent of the French Canadians. A student of the French Canadians in New England,⁶ writing in 1898, comes to the conclusion that the French

⁶ Wm. MacDonald "The French Canadians in New England," *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, vol. xii. See also Rev. E. Hamon's "Les Canadiens-Français de la Nouvelle-Angleterre" (Quebec, 1891), and "Growth of the French Canadian Race in America," by Professor John Davidson in *THE ANNALS of American Academy of Political and Social Science* (1896).

Canadians in New England are gradually losing their identity and coalescing with other nationalities, especially the Irish. I have myself heard French Canadians say they were ashamed to speak French in their United States home. The birth-rate among them is lower than in Quebec; child mortality, especially up to five years, remains high; immigration has greatly declined and solicited immigration has ceased altogether. The influence of industrial life and of free public schools is doing the rest. The comparative youthfulness of the Canadians, already referred to, is here of moment.

A word as to the effect of all this emigration on Canada's population. During the half century Canada made up one and one-quarter millions of her loss by settlers crossing the water from Great Britain. This and other European immigration together with her natural increase have enabled Canada to show a slight advance in population from decade to decade.

The meager growth has given rise to assertions of a declining birth-rate in some of the older provinces. During the last few decades later marriages and a slightly lower birth-rate are in evidence both in Europe and in America. Agricultural sections especially have lost in population on account of the introduction of machinery. The constituents of the rural population have changed: there are now relatively more children and old folk than formerly, fewer of middle age, those in the prime of life being drawn into the great stream of people migrating to the cities, and in Canada to the new West or to the United States. This is largely the situation in Ontario and in "the provinces down by the sea." That there are now not so many births in proportion to the whole population is in itself natural. But available returns do not allow one to speak of an unusual decline in the birth rate in relation to the people of marriageable age. The assertion of a lower birth rate can accordingly be little more than surmise. Yet it is doubtless true that families are smaller than formerly. Speaking of Ontario one can even notice that families are smaller in the old settled parts than in northern or "New" Ontario. The result is that for many years Ontario, as well as the maritime provinces little more than held their own in population. This is evident from the following table. This does not hold for Quebec province, where families with fifteen to twenty-five children are not uncommon and where the population has gone on doubling itself since 1680 on the average every thirty

years, elbowing out moreover the comparatively few English residents from the country parts.⁷

The relations between Canada and the United States have been in some points not unlike those between Scotland and England. There is the great difference, however, that Canada has a back country with a varied wealth of natural resources which is now attracting a larger population and creating a wider home-market for men and goods. And in spite of the heavy net losses of population in the past, there is probably no part of the world

POPULATION OF CANADA BY PROVINCES

Province	1871	1881	1901	1911
Ontario.....	1,620,351	1,923,228	2,182,947	2,523,274
Quebec.....	1,191,516	1,359,027	1,648,898	2,002,712
Nova Scotia.....	387,800	440,572	459,574	492,338
New Brunswick.....	285,594	321,233	331,120	351,889
Prince Edward Island.....	94,021	108,891	103,259	93,728
Manitoba.....	25,228	62,260	255,211	455,614
Territories.....	48,000	56,446	211,649	892,808*
British Columbia.....	36,427	49,454	178,657	392,480
Total.....	3,688,937	4,321,111	5,371,315	7,204,843

where the average comfort is so high, and where since 1900 a rapid progress in agriculture, industry and population is so evident as in "The Great Dominion." During the five years ending with July, 1905, upwards of 550,000 people are reported to have settled here. One hundred and eighty-two thousand of these have come from the United States, 60 to 75 per cent of whom are said to be returning Canadians. The immediate future promises even more impressive results. While the emigration of Canadians to-day appears to be still not unimportant the northward trekking of settlers into Canada has assumed large proportions. American capital is also showing more and more interest in Canadian industry. I refrain from giving further figures as the published statistics on emigration and immigration appear to me unreliable.

⁷ Professor Davidson, in his article already cited, finds that the French Canadians have been doubling since 1763 every twenty-seven years.

* Made up of the two new provinces of Alberta with 374,663, Saskatchewan with 92,434, Yukon Territory with 8,512, and the unorganized Northwest Territory with 17,196.

The effect of all this interchange of blood and capital one can only say lies hidden in the mists of the future. This much may be ventured, however: the presence of many Canadians in the United States and of Americans in the Dominion is as a pledge of amity and peace, a pledge of all the greater value in North America, where, unlike Europe, two great nations practically divide the continent, and where for this very reason it is conceivable that in moments of popular excitement these nations might forget that even a selfish national policy is not necessarily hostile in intent. It is well, too, in the interests of the *pax americana* that both countries are finding responsibilities beyond their continent, though with his theory of the "manifest destiny" of Canada, the late Mr. Goldwin Smith was of another mind. As for the United States, it is changing from an American republic to an empire with a world-wide outlook. Canada also is passing on from the stage of self-contemplation to the prospect of imperial interests.

CANADA AND THE CHINESE: A COMPARISON WITH THE UNITED STATES

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Canada, although a dependency of the British Empire, has been wisely left alone by the mother country to work out her own destinies and to solve her own difficulties in whatever manner she may determine. Through that unrivaled system of colonial government, the most successful the world has ever seen, England has granted the Dominion practical independence with but passive adherence to a superior sovereignty, and the result of this policy of confederation has been the expansion of our neighbor of the north into the Greater Canada of to-day, sharing with us an active participation in the economic problems peculiar to North America in its relations with the Old World.

For over a century the industries, trade and commerce of Canada were what might almost be expressed as the "short and simple annals of the poor." The popular fallacy the world over was that the Dominion consisted of a vast region of ice and snow, relieved only by a narrow strip of fertile territory bordering on the United States. To the average uninquisitive reader the names of Alberta, Saskatchewan and British Columbia induced a mental picture identical with the climatic and topographical conditions of Labrador, Alaska and Greenland. Canada was looked upon as the Siberia of the Western Hemisphere, and, like Siberia, according to the same unreasoning fancy, was arbitrarily condemned in the popular imagination as a barren waste, unproductive, undesirable, its greatest value lying in increasing the aggregate number of square miles comprising the British Empire to an astonishing total.

Until a comparatively recent date the possibilities of Canada were unknown to the world, being overshadowed by the unprecedented growth and prosperity of the United States, but with international rivalries dominating trade and commerce, with the scramble of the great Powers for the last few acres of unclaimed land, and with the intensive development of colonies and dependencies already in pos-

session, Canada has at last deservedly come to her own. The history of Canada for the last thirty years reads like a reflex American movement. It is punctuated throughout by the same steady growth, the kind that never declines, the same railroad activities, the same beginnings of manufacture, the same problems of pushing the frontier further west or further north as has been the history of the United States up to the last half century.

However, with the development of her immense potentialities, it did not take Canada long to discover that progress, however natural and continuous, has its attendant difficulties. Of these the race question is by far the most fragile to handle and the most puzzling to solve, of undue importance politically because of the complications ensuing in foreign relations, and serious sociologically because of the influences, sometimes uplifting, more often retarding, upon national characteristics. While Canada was in her pristine stages of development she was spared this vexatious problem which has proved so damaging to the United States, but with her consequent economic advance it was inevitable that sooner or later races other than Caucasian would be attracted to her shores to participate in the material advantages which prosperity in a new country invariably offers to old civilizations.

Like our own country Canada faces, Janus-like, the Occident and the Orient, and similarly the waves of exploitation and settlement flowed from east to west. Thus, with one coastline extending along the Pacific, opposite the most populous area of the earth's surface, it was but natural that as soon as Canada's advantages became known to the world, the races of the Far East would find here a strong incentive for immigration in the desire, alike in all peoples, of bettering their economic conditions. The pioneer Chinese came in the beginning sixties, actuated by the same impulses which caused their first invasion of the United States, namely, the discovery of gold in the mines of Cassiar and Caribou. Later in the eighties began the construction of the Canadian Pacific Railway, by which the provinces of the Dominion were knit together with transcontinental lines of steel. The era of railroad building meant the same problems to Canada as it meant to the United States in the previous decade, and here again the Chinese, the best laborers in the world for such purpose, were called upon to make the transportation dream of Canada's statesmen a reality. But more laborers came than were wanted,

and it was found necessary to impose such restrictions, hitherto none, as would keep the non-assimilative portion of the population within reasonable bounds. The Canadian of the Pacific coast feared, and rightly so, an Asiatic flood that might easily have submerged the few thousand inhabitants that represented the dominant race. Therefore, in 1884, the Dominion government appointed a royal commission to investigate the question and the result was the imposition, in 1886, of a tax of \$50 per head upon incoming Chinese.

By the census of 1891 there was a total of 9,129 Chinese in Canada, and of this number 8,910 resided in British Columbia. The capitation tax of \$50 was, however, too low to appreciably lessen the influx of Orientals; therefore an increase to \$100 was determined upon, to take effect in 1901. Even this was declared by the people of British Columbia, the province most affected by the immigration, to be utterly inadequate, and a second commission was ordered by the government to make a thorough investigation. It was this commission of 1900 which recommended the increase of the capitation tax to \$500, the present ratio, and a law was accordingly enacted by the Canadian Parliament, to come into force January, 1904, whereby the tax was raised to the specified amount, where it has since remained.

By January 1, 1904, there were approximately 30,000 Chinese in Canada, and of these 16,007 arrived from June, 1900, to the above mentioned date.¹ With the increase of the tax to \$500 the immigration became for a few years a negligible quantity,² and it was hoped that the solution of the perplexing problem had been reached. Nevertheless a new difficulty arose, curiously enough the logical resultant of this exorbitant head-money.

¹ Fiscal year, June, 1900, to 1901.....	2,518
Fiscal year, June, 1901, to 1902.....	3,525
Fiscal year, June, 1902, to 1903.....	5,245
June, 1903, to January 1, 1904.....	4,719

16,007

From *Report* by W. L. Mackenzie King, C.M.G., of the Royal Commission appointed to inquire into the methods by which Oriental laborers have been induced to come to Canada. Ottawa, 1908, p. 70.

² *Ibid.*, p. 70:

January 1, 1904, to June 30, 1904.....	0
June 30, 1904, to June 30, 1905.....	8
June 30, 1905, to June 30, 1906.....	22
June 30, 1906, to June 30, 1907.....	91

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To all intents and purposes Canada had become a closed country to the average Chinaman. Immigration had been effectively discouraged, and the fortunate Orientals who had succeeded in coming to Canada prior to the enactment of the prohibitive tax were apparently the only ones who would be able to enter the happy land. This led, however, to an immediate readjustment of labor according to the conditions as they now existed, which contingency the legislators had no doubt failed to take into account. As the available supply was momentarily at a standstill the people of British Columbia, of both races, awoke to the fact that Chinese labor in Canada was now limited, practically a static quantity and subject only to slight increase. The peculiar economic advantages thus accruing to the Chinese are ably expressed by the Royal Commissioner. Said Mr. King: "The Chinaman who had landed in this country prior to January, 1904, discovered that the state, unwittingly perhaps, had, by restricting further competition from without, created of his labor a huge monopoly; without organization, without expense, without even agitation, every Chinaman became a unit in a labor group more favored than the most exclusive and highly protected trade union."³ Coupled with this was the fact, admitted by all unprejudiced critics, that the Chinese were the best laborers obtainable for many industries. Their mode of living, ingrained through necessity by centuries of limited food supply almost down to the starvation point, their astonishing endurance, the result of intermittent labor in China necessary to keep body and soul together, their submissiveness and lack of aggressive action, an outgrowth of Confucianism which our West never understood, their cheerfulness, their fatalistic philosophy and their extraordinary aptitude for grinding toil, a vice instead of a virtue according to the weaker Caucasian standards, all of these qualities have made them well-nigh indispensable for the rapid development of a new country. Considering these traits, applicable to the entire race, it was but natural, with the further supply almost cut off, at least to any appreciable extent, that their labor should increase in demand, and with this increase, at variance with the stationary, even diminishing number available, it can readily be seen that the monetary value of their services advanced tremen-

³ From *Report* by W. L. Mackenzie King, C.M.G., of the Royal Commission appointed to inquire into the methods by which Oriental laborers have been induced to come to Canada. Ottawa, 1908, p. 71.

dously. It operated, in fact, as a "huge monopoly." The fortunate Oriental in Canada discovered that the state had, innocently enough, doubled and even trebled his earning capacity. It was revealed by testimony before the Royal Commission that by the inauguration of the \$500 tax the average wage for even such ordinary work as packing fish arose from \$25 to \$40 with food to \$60 and \$70. With wages in China for unskilled labor at 5 or 10 cents per day and wages in Canada at first \$20 to \$40, and now double, the Chinaman already resident in the Dominion saw here the golden opportunity which comes but rarely in a lifetime. A few years of welcomed hardships and he would be able to return to the Orient burdened with excessive wealth, to become the Carnegie of his native village, honored, envied and execrated by all.

The passage of this high tax rate was not received with unanimity of opinion by the Canadian people. Although beneficial and desirable in the main, it was inevitable, according to the law governing taxation and economic restrictions, that the act would cause some hardship somewhere. Foremost among those that suffered were the fruit growers who had taken up land in the extreme western provinces, in many cases direct from the government, with the reasonable expectation that they could depend upon Chinese labor to garner the immense crops. From gathering fruit, however, the Chinaman, with his ready adaptability, turned to the more profitable fields of industry, and this caused a shortage of necessary hands which occasioned acute distress. The owners of the fruit ranches, undergoing the same experiences as their brethren in California, but more sensible in seeking a solution, held meetings, made speeches and presented petitions to the Canadian Parliament praying for relief, at least for a sufficient number of Chinese as would move the annual crops, but without result, which shows, nevertheless, that there were two sides to this question.

Nor can the Chinese be blamed for making the most of their opportunities. The various lines of industry in which they were pre-eminent, indeed, desired above all other races, increased their advantages and made more rapid their change from one field to another where the monetary inducement was greater. They have been severely censured for resorting unduly to "French leave," their enemies even trying to make this out as a national characteristic, but that is unfair, for such is human nature the world over

wherever there is a chance for a greater financial consideration. Nevertheless this kaleidoscopic change from one employment to another caused many a hardship in the staid Canadian homes in British Columbia and gave a new aspect to the universally vexatious servant problem. As one writer remarked: "For instance, in summer Vancouver, it is nearly impossible to get servants because they all go off to the canneries; but when the salmon have all gone down to the sea the cooks come back to their kitchens and the households of Vancouver run smoothly again."⁴ It has been experienced since, by the people of both Canada and the United States that the Japanese laborers are prone to take "French leave," in the original meaning of the term, far more than the Chinese at their worst.

The greatest benefit resulting from the imposition of the increased tax was the abolition at one blow of the labor agencies and contractors that had made Chinese immigration a highly specialized field of investment. This undesirable traffic had continued under the \$50 tax and even under the \$100 tax, but with the necessary sum increased to \$500 the risks involved were too great to further consider the Chinese laborer a safe business proposition. The \$500 tax struck at the very root of the system, abolished it completely and ruined once for all this hitherto profitable trade in humanity, and this while the United States is still trying, with varying degrees of success, to break up the padrone and other contract labor systems by summary legislation, and devising schemes whereby the trade in Mexican peons in the Southwest can be similarly reduced and ultimately destroyed.

Within about three years the economic results of the increased tax had become fully apparent to the Chinese. Having prospered exceedingly because of the peculiar conditions outlined above, a large number of Orientals took advantage of their good fortune to return home for a visit, and this number grew so large that the steamship companies had difficulty in affording the required accommodations. While in China the news was spread around of the new land of riches beyond the seas and the wonderful remunerations for labor there obtainable. Moreover, Chinamen who had accumulated a sufficient surplus were able to secure for their relatives and friends, by advancing the money necessary for the tax, the same opportunities which they themselves had enjoyed. The Chinese who remained

⁴ *Living Age*, No. 3268, February 23, 1907, p. 503, from article in *Macmillan's Magazine*.

in Canada wrote home flattering accounts, in most persuasive terms, in order to induce their former comrades to join them in the New World. It is worthy to note that the immigrants were generally males, for, wealthy though the Chinese now were according to their own standards through their stay in British Columbia, yet this was but a temporary residence, an exile voluntarily endured; almost without exception they were passionately desirous of returning to their nativity at the most convenient time, so as to enjoy among their own kind the fruits of their labor. Thus, at a bound, immigration again went up to respectable figures, and from June 30, 1907, to March 31, 1908, there were 1,482 new arrivals in the Dominion, whereas in the entire preceding year but 91 had gained admission.

Many Canadians deprecated this undue increase of Orientals, their apprehensions directed not only against the Chinese, but including equally the Japanese and Hindus, who had made their appearance in corresponding numbers. It was feared that the influx of aliens might become so great as to impair the safety of the commonwealth, and during the year 1907 racial feeling ran high in British Columbia. Unfortunately this feeling of hatred, anti-Asiatic in origin and purpose, grew until a certain element of the white population of Vancouver proceeded to take matters in their own hands, the result of which was the deplorable September riots, in which much property belonging to Chinese and Japanese residents was destroyed. The situation was a new one for the Dominion, although an old story, and a sordid one at that, in the United States. It was a critical moment in the history of Canada, for not only her own policy hinged upon the outcome, but the foreign policy of the entire British Empire, penetrating every corner of the globe and on especially delicate foundations in the Far East, was similarly involved. It is now the writer's pleasure to comment on the magnanimous spirit, the truly Britannic sense of fair play, with which Canada met the difficulty and solved it, in a way which leaves a warm regard for this people who can successfully engage in what is perhaps the most momentous question of modern times, namely, the conflict of color, the hatred of race for race, of nation for nation, which, curiously enough, instead of growing less with the spread of international law and comity, and the establishment of The Hague tribunals, seems to become greater year after year. There was but one thing for Canada to do, and that was to do the right thing, to face the situation fairly and squarely,

to submerge self-interest in the interests of humanity and the world's peace. Accordingly the Dominion government appointed the Hon. W. L. Mackenzie King, C.M.G., as commissioner to inquire into the causes and results of the September outrages and to determine the necessary damages to be paid, for Canada had actually resolved to reimburse the Asiatic population for its losses, the noblest act of which she was capable. A searching investigation was the result, a large number of witnesses were examined, every penny of loss, actual and resultant, was carefully tabulated, and the total loss incurred by the Chinese alone⁵ at Vancouver was thereupon found to be \$25,990. This sum was reported by the Hon. Mr. King to the Minister of Labor, with the additional recommendation that an extra thousand dollars be given the Chinese to repay them for the legal expenses of the investigation. The total sum, \$26,990, was paid without quibble by Parliament.

This was applying the principles of Christianity in sincerity. What a contrast is this Canadian method of dispensing justice to aliens to our delightful American system of shifting the responsibility for outrages against helpless foreigners from state government to

⁵ A similar careful investigation was made of the losses sustained by the Japanese residents of Vancouver, which claims, presented by the Japanese consul-general, amounted to \$13,519.45, of which \$2,405.70 was given as actual and \$11,113.75 as resultant. Through the searching inquiries of Mr. King, it was found, however, that "there was a difference of some \$4,500 between the total amount claimed and the total amount awarded," which was accounted for "by somewhat exorbitant claims made by one or two merchants for alleged losses in business, and more or less excessive claims made by some of the Japanese boarding-house keepers." In settling the Chinese claims to a penny, the commissioner had remarked that "the claimants appear almost without exception to have exercised moderation and a sense of fairness in the amount at which their respective business losses were estimated. In only two cases was a claim made for losses beyond a period of six days. Some of the claimants took account only of losses on account of expenditure for the time during which their places of business had been closed, and omitted any reference to loss of profit during the same." The only difficulty experienced with the Chinese was in approximating the claims for guards who had protected their property in the days following the riot. The fact that every claim was allowed as presented illustrates again the proverbial honesty and commercial integrity of the Chinaman.

The Japanese consulate at Vancouver ably assisted the commissioner in ascertaining the damages to Japanese property. Mr. King sent a check for \$1,600, authorized by order in council, to the consulate for its efficient help, which was returned by the consul with the courteous information that, "while appreciating the high and honourable motives which have prompted you and your government . . . I regret that it is impossible for my government to accept a reward for protecting the interests and property of the subjects of Japan." An extra \$189 was also recommended by Mr. King to reimburse the Japanese for the expense of declaring their claims.

As the various amounts were settled the individual Japanese affected were required to give a quit-claim to the Dominion government, which declaration of release, it seems, was not demanded of the Chinese.

See *Reports* by W. L. Mackenzie King, C.M.G., as to the losses of the Chinese and Japanese population of Vancouver; 7-8 Edward VII, Sessional Paper No. 74 f, A. 1908; 7-8 Edward VII, Sessional Paper No. 74 g, A. 1908, Ottawa, 1908.

federal and from federal government back to state, a continual seesaw ending only when the foreign government retires in disgust or when the United States is forced to make amends by a power sufficiently belligerent and capable to enforce its claims, as did Japan in the humiliating episode of the San Francisco school question, which ended in a diplomatic defeat for the government at Washington. Another case in point is the New Orleans riots of 1891, where the United States attempted to make Louisiana pay indemnity for the violation of treaty rights to Italy. Louisiana flatly refused, and the federal government was forced to settle the Italian claims through the national treasury, and not until this onerous duty had been performed was the United States able to wheedle Louisiana into repaying the sum. But with China all the absurdities of our system worked beautifully. China, being without money or military resources, and consequently outside the pale of justice, was unable to exact compensation. She was unable in the majority of instances even to secure enforcement of the law and legal responsibility for the destruction of her citizens' property and the murder of her nationals in California, Wyoming and Colorado. Chen Lan Pin, her able representative, in his efforts to secure satisfaction for the outrages committed in the last-named state, was referred by the national government to Colorado and from Colorado back to the national government, although the latter had no jurisdiction in the matter, because, according to our peculiar code of state rights, which should have been obsolete a century ago, this was a case for the local judiciary. Needless to say, after a wearisome exchange of negotiations, in which it developed that the United States had little control over territory and none whatever over state in these instances, the Chinese minister failed in his purpose.⁶ The concealed justice lurking in such an

⁶ The following curious arguments were used by Secretary of State Evarts to Minister Chen in defending the United States. Said the Secretary:

"It seems superfluous to recall to your attention the fact, but too well attested by history, that on occasions, happily infrequent, often without motive in their inception, and always without reason in their working, lawless persons will band together and make up a force in the character of a mob, of sufficient strength to defy, for the moment, the denunciations of the law and the power of the local authorities. Such incidents are peculiar to no country. Neither the United States nor China is exempt from such disasters. In the case now under consideration (the Denver riot) it is seen that the local authorities brought into requisition all the means at their command for the suppression of the mob, and that these means proved so effective that within twenty-four hours regular and lawful authority was re-established, the mob completely subdued and many of the ring-leaders arrested.

"Under circumstances of this nature when the government has put forth every legitimate effort to suppress a mob that threatens or attacks alike the safety and security of its own citizens

arrangement of equity and international obligations was impossible of discernment even to this Oriental brain schooled in the nicest subtleties of Confucius and Mencius. Although at the present

and the foreign residents within its borders, I know of no principle of national obligation, and there certainly is none arising from treaty stipulation, which renders it incumbent on the government of the United States to make indemnity to the Chinese residents of Denver, who, in common with citizens of the United States, at the time residents in that city, suffered losses from the operations of the mob. Whatever remedies may be afforded to the citizens of Colorado or to the citizens of the United States from other states of the Union resident in Colorado for losses resulting from that occurrence, are equally open to the Chinese residents of Denver who may have suffered from the lawlessness of the mob. This is all that the principles of international law and the usages of national comity demand.

"This view of the subject supersedes any discussion of the extent or true meaning of the treaty obligations on the part of this government toward Chinese residents, for it proceeds upon the proposition that these residents are to receive the same measure of protection and vindication under judicial and political administration of their rights as our own citizens."

This is all very well and very neatly expressed, but the question arises, how are the Chinese going to obtain this "same measure of protection and vindication under judicial and political administration," at the hands of local courts, under local control and influenced by local prejudice? The arguments of Mr. Evarts, however sincere he may have been in stating them, are entirely beside the point at issue, and instead of solving the difficulty, only make it plainer that the enforcement of treaty rights and obligations is a duty of the federal government to perform and not the duty of the state courts.

On September 2, 1885, occurred the riot at Rock Springs, in the Territory of Wyoming, in which twenty-eight Chinese were killed and property valued at \$147,748.74 was destroyed or appropriated. The Chinese Minister Cheng Tsao Ju, made it clear to Secretary Bayard that the riot had been unprovoked by the Chinese, that no attempt had been made by the authorities to quell the disturbance, and that it was unlikely, "according to the reports of the consuls," that any of the rioters would be brought to punishment by either the territorial or local officers. He demanded full indemnity for the Chinese losses and injuries, and also measures that would in the future protect his countrymen in the United States. Minister Cheng also proved himself to be familiar with the arguments used by Secretary Evarts and Secretary Blaine, who had succeeded Mr. Evarts, in denying the legal liability of the United States to make reparation in the Colorado case, but this, he pointed out, had been concerned with a state, whereas the present disturbance had taken place in a territory of the United States and over which the government at Washington presumably had complete control. Therefore in this Wyoming outrage he demanded full indemnity from the national government and an admission of federal responsibility. Secretary Bayard replied by lengthy and tedious arguments in an effort to show that, by the treaties and conventions with China, the United States had fully performed its part, that the Chinese were not discriminated against any more than other aliens, and that they enjoyed equally with other nationalities the same privileges and protection of the law. He concluded with the recommendation, as "the circumstances of the case now under consideration contain features which I am disposed to believe may induce the President to recommend to the Congress, not as under obligation of treaty or principle of international law, but solely from a sentiment of generosity and pity to an innocent and unfortunate body of men, subjects of a foreign power, who, being peaceably employed within our jurisdiction, were so shockingly outraged," that, therefore, "it may reasonably be a subject for the benevolent consideration of Congress," with the "distinct understanding," however, "that no precedent is thereby created, or liability for want of proper enforcement of police jurisdiction in the territories." By the act of February 24, 1887, Congress granted the sum of \$147,748.74 to be distributed at the "discretion of the Chinese government" among the victims of the Wyoming riot. During the debate in Congress, Senator Edmunds, himself of the majority, took occasion to remark, however, that "there can be negligence between nations on the part of governments. . . . One nation as between itself and another is not bound by the internal autonomy of that state, but it looks to the body of the nation to carry out its obligations, and if they have not the judicial means to do it, for one reason or another, the nation that is injured is not bound by the

moment it must be admitted that quite a *rapprochement* has been reached between our dual governments as to responsibility for violating "the highest law of the land," yet at the first outbreak where racial passions run riot against various nationalities as in the past, outbreaks which will surely occur again because of the complexities of our population, we will probably experience a repetition of the old story, and with what results no one can foretell. Mr. Roosevelt, while President, did much toward strengthening the power of the executive and emphasizing the central government in the application and enforcement of treaty rights and obligations, and it is hoped that the present tendency will continue.

It is interesting to analyze the Canadian Chinese Immigration Act by a comparison with the "Exclusion Laws" of the United States. In section 43 of the general American code for aliens⁷ it is expressly provided "that this act shall not be construed to repeal, alter or amend existing laws relating to the immigration or exclusion of Chinese persons or persons of Chinese descent." Consequently by the latest expression of our immigration policy the Chinese are not included in the benefits enumerated, but share only in the general restrictions, remaining as heretofore a race apart, singled out and the only exception, from all the rest of mankind. According to section 79 of the Canadian act,⁸ "all provisions not repugnant to *The Chinese Immigration Act* shall apply as well to persons of Chinese origin as to other persons." The distinction here made by the writer may seem trivial to the general reader but to the student of Far Eastern affairs it is significant enough. Canada does not segregate the Chinese into a class by themselves as we do, neither does she foolishly offend their race susceptibilities, but instead takes care not to cause them to "lose face," that inexplicable emotion which is in itself an epitome of the Chinese character, individually and nationally. The Chinese, on the other hand, feel that we purposely discriminate against

failure of the nation whose people committed the injury." Nevertheless the federal government persisted in denying that it was legally responsible even for outrages committed within the territories.

By the Deficiency Appropriations Act of October 19, 1888, Congress authorized a further sum of \$276,619.75 to be paid in settlement of Chinese claims for earlier disturbances.

See Moore, John Bassett, *A Digest of International Law*, 8 vols., Washington, 1906, vol. vi, pp. 820-837.

⁷ Act of February 20, 1907; 34 Stat., 898, as amended by act of March 26, 1910; 36 Stat., 263, an act to regulate the immigration of aliens into the United States.

⁸ Act respecting immigration, assented to May 4, 1910, and an act to amend the act respecting immigration, assented to April 4, 1911.

them and feel it keenly. It is their common complaint that we hold them to account for every act and characteristic of which we disapprove, whereas the shortcomings of all other nationalities, no matter how glaring, are deliberately overlooked.

Canada specifies no excluded class of Chinese except the kind applicable to all races necessarily found in the general immigration laws of both countries, namely, paupers, idiots or insane, immoral persons or persons suffering from loathsome, infectious or contagious diseases. All normal Chinese are freely admitted upon the payment of the tax. The United States definitely excludes all Chinese except those specifically exempted from the operation of the act, the same in Canada from paying the tax, as the diplomatic and consular corps, teachers, merchants, students⁹ and travelers. The general tone of the Canadian act is conciliatory, of the American act hostile. Canada exempts, the United States excludes, and between these two terms lies the greatest difference. Canada has found out that excluding and thereby irritating the coming power of the Far East is not necessary. The \$500 tax easily cuts down immigration to the desired level, aided as it is by the requirement that no vessel can carry more immigrants than one to every fifty tons burden. Why cannot we have the same clause and thus at one stroke sever the greatest and most lasting cause for misunderstanding between America and China? A \$500 head-tax would operate as satisfactorily here as in Canada. That is beyond argument. Or if \$500 be deemed too low the price for entry could be raised to \$1,000. That surely would be prohibitive. By the imposition of this burdensome tax, necessarily so in order to prevent the undesirable coolie element from migrating to our Pacific coast, the situation would be saved by a technicality, and the United States would be released from the constant embarrassments occasioned by the application and enforcement of the present acts. If this proposal were accepted and put into legislation it would not be necessary for China further to "lose face," it would not be neces-

⁹ As to students (7-8 Edward VII, Chap. 14, Sec. 3): "A student of Chinese origin who upon first entering Canada has substantiated his status as such to the satisfaction of the controller, subject to the approval of the minister, and who is the bearer of a certificate of identity, or other similar document issued by the government or a recognized official or representative of the government whose subject he is, and who at that time satisfies the controller that he is entering Canada for the purpose of securing a higher education in one of the recognized universities, or in some other educational institution approved by the governor in council for the purposes of this section, and who afterwards furnishes satisfactory proof that he has been a *bona fide* student in such university or educational institution for a period of one year, shall be entitled to a refund of the tax paid by him upon his entry into Canada."

sary for the Chinese to realize as now that the greatest nation of the Western Hemisphere is a closed nation to them, as impossible to enter legally as for us to enter the holy City of Mecca, for such are the popular suppositions in China regarding our "Exclusion Laws." There is no need to elaborate on the amount of the tax herein proposed; that is beside the argument. It is certain, however, that by such an arrangement the present serious misunderstandings and harsh criticisms on both sides of the water would be removed, and even if a few hundred more Chinese would enter yearly we could use them to the greatest advantage in California and elsewhere.

There is no restriction whatever in the Canadian act against the Chinese otherwise than limiting their number. In the act of the United States,¹⁰ however, we read that, "hereafter no state court or court of the United States shall admit Chinese to citizenship; and all laws in conflict with this act are hereby repealed." Now the naturalization of any other foreigner is permissible by fulfilling the requirements, namely, five years of continuous residence, declaration of intention two years in advance, renouncing allegiance to the native government, ability to speak English and intention to reside permanently in the United States. The result of such discrimination was amply illustrated in the history of the West since the exclusion laws were enacted; everyone despised the Chinaman for his inability to become a citizen and saw in him just prey for mob violence. Any other foreigner of whatever standard of morals or brains had and still has the inherent right by law to become naturalized, but the Chinaman, by the same law, no matter how superior in morals or brains, cannot rise above the status of the alien, the lowest stratum in the political community. This clause is unnecessary. Passed in the heat of labor controversies, it has remained in force, together with exclusion, because of the strange inability of the average American to comprehend his country in an international light. The denial of the right of expatriation is an affront which the United States dares not offer to any capable power; furthermore, it is useless in this instance, as few Chinese would avail themselves of the privilege. In repealing this offensive stipulation against the world's latest republic, the *entente* between the two nations, now

¹⁰ Sec. 14 of act of May 6, 1882; 22 Stat., p. 58, as amended and added to by act of July 5, 1884; 23 Stat., p. 115.

largely alike in government, would be materially increased.¹¹ As it is, China is well aware of the fact that by refusing citizenship to her nationals, the United States has put her people on an immeasurably lower plane than any other races here residing, and has kept them there; but in spite of the boycotts against American trade by which the United States lost millions of dollars and a corresponding proportion of commercial and political prestige, the lesson has not yet been driven home.

The Canadian law is free from all the vexations and spiteful restrictions which hedge in the Chinese by the law of the United States as regards entry and registration. By the Canadian act, "the chief controller, and such controllers as are by him authorized so to do, shall keep a register of all persons to whom certificates of entry have been granted."¹² The American system is a maze of tortuous qualifications too tedious to enumerate, resulting of course from the fact that the immense majority of the Chinese nation is absolutely excluded, and through the fear of the United States that one of them might slip in by mistake in the guise of an exempt or returning laborer and thus evade the Chinese wall of restrictions against him. The greatest fault of our system of entry and registration lies in the fact that too many times the best and noblest of the Chinese race are actually put in the detention sheds and, pending trial, subjected to the same indignities which the stolid coolie accepts with equanimity but which create in the Chinese of the higher classes a deep-seated hatred for this government and its institutions, which is immediately put into play upon their return to China. The consequent effect of this hatred on the American diplomatic and commercial policy in the Far East is familiar to every one who has studied the situation.

The Canadian law provides that the certificate which the

¹¹ A good beginning was made, but soon discarded, by the Burlingame treaty of July 8, 1868, which stated in Article V that "the United States of America and the Emperor of China cordially recognize the inherent and unalienable right of man to change his home and allegiance, and also the mutual advantage of the free migration and emigration of other citizens and subjects respectively from the one country to the other for purposes of curiosity, of trade or as permanent residents." This treaty, however, it must be remembered, was ratified while the United States, and all the world for that matter, gave China credit for having enormous military strength which made imperative an exchange of benefits. Not until the Chino-Japanese war of 1894-5 was the astonishing weakness of the former Chinese Empire fully revealed.

For the text of the Burlingame treaty see Moore's *Digest*, vol. v, p. 430; *Treaties and Conventions*, etc., of the United States and foreign powers, 2 vols., Washington, 1910, vol. i, p. 235. See also Moore, *Ibid.*, vol. iii, p. 587; vol. iv, p. 187, 551; vol. v, p. 429.

¹² 3 Edward VII, c. 8, s. 14; Rev. Stat., 1906, ch. 95, s. 17.

Chinese immigrant receives "shall be *prima facie* evidence that the person presenting it has complied with the requirements of the act," with the reservation that "such certificate may be contested by His Majesty or by any officer charged with the duty of carrying this act into effect, if there is reason to doubt the validity or authenticity thereof, or of any statement therein contained;" furthermore, "such contestation shall be heard or determined in a summary manner by any judge of a superior court of any province of Canada where such certificate is produced."¹³ By the regulations of the United States, "any Chinese person, other than a Chinese laborer, having the right to remain in the United States, desiring such certificate of such right, may apply for and receive the same without charge."¹⁴ Thus the American specification as regards the exempt classes actually seems at first glance to be the fairer, but it must be remembered that our law has not in the majority of instances worked smoothly, first, because of the exclusion feature which in every case is necessarily involved; second, because of the inability of occasional immigration officers, past and present, to distinguish one Chinaman from another, or a scholar, merchant or "high-class" Oriental from the ordinary coolie. Consequently the result has been that too many times in this country the certificate of an undeniable exempt has been unjustly contested, or the Chinaman legally residing here or visiting this country for pleasure has been subjected to indignities by irresponsible officers in the preliminary investigation even before receiving his certificate. The entire attitude of the United States toward the Chinese has been necessarily colored by the policy of exclusion, and the constant misunderstandings and ill feeling will continue until the laws are modified in some satisfactory manner.

As regards the laborer, he must indeed be a man of more than ordinary brains to evade the seemingly impenetrable meshes of restrictions guarding against him, and should one so manage to enter this country and later be found wanting, he ought straightway receive his certificate of residence as a reward for his feat of accomplishing the impossible.

The application of a returning merchant claiming domicile in the United States must be established "by the testimony of two credible witnesses other than Chinese," to prove that "he conducted

¹³ 3 Edward VII, c. 8, s. 13; Rev. Stat., 1906, ch. 95, s. 8.

¹⁴ Act of May 5, 1892; 27 Stat., p. 25, Sec. 6.

such business as hereinbefore defined for at least one year before his departure from the United States, and that during such year he was not engaged in the performance of any manual labor, except such as was necessary in the conduct of his business as such merchant and in default of such proof shall be refused landing."¹⁵ If he was to undergo deportation he was to suffer arrest and was "not to be admitted to bail." If the certificate were by chance granted to him it must contain "the photograph of the applicant, together with his name, local residence and occupation." The photograph must be furnished "in such form as may be prescribed by the Secretary of Commerce and Labor," and the special work of art necessary to satisfy the requirements is made clear by painstaking detail.¹⁶

Anyone who is acquainted with the proverbial honesty of the Chinese merchant, and who has visited the enormous bazaars of Oriental art in San Francisco and Los Angeles, where the treasures of the Far East are gathered with loving care and in perfect taste, must know that these stipulations do not tend to inculcate a good understanding or a reciprocity of interests between the Chinese mercantile classes and the United States, and that whenever a merchant returns to China and recites to an indignant audience the story of his humiliating experiences in America, by so much in every instance is the commercial opportunity of the United States in the Far East lessened and put to greater disadvantage. The race is not infallible, yet the entire world concedes that the integrity of the average Chinese merchant is beyond criticism, and he is trusted by European bankers and establishments to an extent denied to any other nationality. This is because his religion and system of philosophy successfully teach him that honesty in business is one of the cardinal virtues. Even the humblest merchant with the smallest

¹⁵ Act of November 3, 1893; 28 Stat., p. 7, Sec. 2.

¹⁶ Some interesting Bertillon measurements are given in the *Regulations* as to photographs, which were to be unmounted, "of suitable quality," and "printed from a negative that has not been retouched, representing the subject without hat, full front view, showing both ears, measuring 1 1/4 inches from top of head to point of chin. The photograph shall be attached to the certificate with great care to insure permanency and prevent warping." Furthermore the stature of the applicant "shall be carefully taken and inserted in feet and inches, and in recording physical marks and peculiarities those which are the most prominent and the least likely to be obliterated by lapse of time shall be selected."

Regarding the exempt who wishes to travel, it is provided that the photograph must be taken "from a negative that has not been retouched, full front view, showing both ears, about 3 by 3 inches square, head 1 1/4 inches long from top of head to point of chin." The Chinese are of course, unable to see the humor in these stipulations.

See *Regulations* governing the admission of Chinese, Rule 19, Section (E); Rule 21, Section (10).

kind of a store is invariably courteous without being ostentatious, kindly, cheerful, indifferent to sales and ignorant of the manifold schemes by which other merchants enhance the price of an article which the tourist, by an unwise display of emotion, shows that he wishes to possess. It would be a good thing for our country if we had a few of these types of Chinese in some of our lines of industry, especially in those that cater to the poor, who pay a higher price for the necessities of life of inferior quality, as every social settlement worker knows, than any other class. Yet these merchants are of the race which our laws stigmatize as undesirable, to be kept down to a minimum which might as well be total expulsion.

The Canadian law respecting re-entry, on the other hand, is beautiful in its simplicity. As regards this section of the act, it is provided that "every person of Chinese origin who wishes to leave Canada, with the declared intention of returning thereto, shall give written notice of such intention to the controller at the port or place whence he proposes to sail or depart, in which notice shall be stated the foreign port or place which such person wishes to visit, and the route he intends to take both going and returning, and such notice shall be accompanied by a fee of one dollar.

"The controller shall thereupon enter in a register to be kept for the purpose, the name, residence, occupation and description of the said person, and such other information regarding him as is deemed necessary, under such regulations as are made for the purpose.

"The person so registered shall be entitled on his return, if within twelve months of such registration, and as proof of his identity to the satisfaction of the controller, as to which the decision of the controller shall be final, to free entry as an exempt or to receive from the controller the amount of the tax, if any, paid by him on his return; but if he does not return to Canada within twelve months from the date of such registration he shall, if returning after that date, be subject to the tax of five hundred dollars imposed by this act in the same manner as in the case of a first arrival."¹⁷

Here again it is necessary to remark that Canada's task is far simpler than ours because Canada has no excluded class of Chinese other than those undesirables of all races, which are debarred likewise by both nations. The question of exemption from or payment of

¹⁷ 3 Edward VII, c. 8, s. 18; Rev. Stat., 1906, ch. 95, s. 20, 21.

the \$500 tax is all that concerns the above-quoted sections of the Canadian act. Our laws are and must be extremely more technical, involved and severe because of our policy of exclusion. The only way to make our regulations just as brief and effective as those of our northern neighbor and thus remove all clauses prejudicial to China, is to eradicate the exclusion feature and imitate Canada by substituting instead a sufficiently prohibitive head-tax, by which, according to all reason, better results would be obtained both at home and abroad and in a far more satisfactory manner. As our acts stand they are cumbersome and unwise, the lingering results of a period of lawlessness which should be conveniently forgotten and blotted from our legislation as soon as possible. Canada has had the advantage of profiting by our mistakes and therefore is in a better position to-day than we to command the good will and respect of the new Asiatic power.

It may be offered in extenuation of the United States that Canada has not been confronted with the entire gravity of the so-called Chinese question. That would be erroneous; if at all, Canada has had a situation of far greater complexity to solve than ever we were subject to even in the most grievous days of our mob riots. Canada had, however, one great advantage, her legislative task being made far easier because by a study of comparative politics she was able to avoid and to profit by our lack of judgment. Also, the immigration of the Chinese to Canada did not begin until after the United States, by the exclusion law, had practically denied them entrance. With such a shining example of the violation of international comity before them, it was quite natural that the Dominion government elected to steer in the opposite direction to the policy of the United States, and that not even the most bitter opponents of the Chinese in British Columbia were in favor of exclusion, for that would have been a hazardous course which in all likelihood would have involved the entire British Empire. It must be remembered that Canada, though to all intents and purposes a self-governing commonwealth, is nevertheless not a sovereign entity. The Dominion is, and proudly so, an integral part of the vast possessions over which the British rule, and of which the nerve center is in the Foreign Office at London. In that empire is found a more complex aggregation of races and nationalities than in the Roman Empire, even at the height of its power. The task of assimilating, nay, of even conciliating such

heterogeneous peoples is a titanic duty which the United States has never been called upon to perform. One mistake in this task of ruling this greatest empire the world has ever seen, such as the exclusion of the Chinese from Canada, and the flames of racial and sectional hatred, combined with religious antagonism, which unfortunately has been the incentive for the bloodiest wars of history, would have been kindled throughout the British possessions, especially in India, Burmah and the Soudan, where racial discontent is often seething at the boiling-point. Had England and her colonial governments allowed race hatred to dominate reason and national policy, as we did during the Kearney régime and after, the British Empire long ago would have been shattered into fragments.

From India, the most restive and unmanageable of all the British possessions, Canada found a problem on her hands of greater magnitude than the difficulty experienced with the Chinese. Here again it was necessary to proceed with extreme caution, for the English regeneration of India has largely proven to be a thankless performance so far as the benefited inhabitants are concerned. The more liberty granted the more liberty wanted, to which must be added the vexatious questions arising from conforming religions and customs centuries old to meet the new conditions, together with the awakened national consciousness which inevitably would be brought into vigorous life and quickened by the British programme. Thus it can readily be seen that many times the Anglo-Indian methods of administration had to be adjusted to the most sensitive balance. Canada was not blind to her responsibilities, and her scheme for restricting the entry of immigrants from India without giving offense to the inhabitants thereof, was pronounced by the Hon. Mr. King as "a dovetailing, so to speak, of Great Britain's well-known policy in the protection of the native races in India, and Canada's policy in the matter of immigration."¹⁸ In pursuance of such purpose

¹⁸ Report on immigration to Canada from the Orient and immigration from India in particular, by W. L. Mackenzie King, C. M. G.; 7-8 Edward VII, Sessional Paper No. 36 a, A. 1908. Ottawa, May 4, 1908.

Mr. King said further: "The liberty of British subjects in India is safeguarded rather than curtailed, the traditional policy of Great Britain in respect to the native races of India has been kept in mind, and the necessity of enacting legislation either in India or in Canada which might appear to reflect on fellow British subjects in another part of the empire has been wholly avoided. Nothing could be more unfortunate or misleading than that the impression should go forth that Canada, in seeking to regulate a matter of domestic concern, is not deeply sensible of the obligation which citizenship within the empire entails. It is a recognition of this obligation which has caused her to adopt a course which by removing the possibilities of injustice and friction, is best calculated

Canada found it necessary to make a thorough investigation of the means by which East Indian immigrants were induced to come to the Dominion. It was soon uncovered in this inquiry that contract labor was flourishing among the laborers of this people as it had flourished among the Chinese before the imposition of the \$500 head-tax. The British Indian Emigration Act (xxi, 1883), enacted to protect the Indian laborer from contract labor agencies, provided, however, that departure from India "under an agreement to labor for hire" was not lawful except to countries specified in the act or where notification to that effect had been made. It developed that such immigration "in the sense defined" was illegal by the operation of this Indian emigration act in applying to Canada and that such immigration could not be made lawful unless the Dominion government, by the declaration of the governor general in council, would make notification allowing it, which was not done. This in itself solved the problem, but Canada pushed the inquiry further and discovered that few natives from India emigrated of their own accord but had been unduly influenced by steamship agents, and persons and manufacturing establishments interested in exploiting the immigrant because of his ability to work at a lower wage than that demanded by native Canadian laborers. To offset these causes and render them inoperative in the future the government of India, at the request of the Canadian government, gave sufficient warning that literature scattered broadcast through India describing Canada as a land of fortune must be discontinued; the steamship companies were notified that neither the British nor the Dominion government looked with favor upon their activities to increase immigration; a continuous journey from India to Canada was demanded, and each immigrant was required to have cash on hand to the amount of at least twenty-five dollars. Through such beneficial requirements was the "dove-tailing" of the policies of Great Britain and Canada accomplished and by these simple and effective remedies each country was able to respect the obligations of the other and to enforce regulations which saved the situation without danger to the empire.

We have acquired on quite a respectable scale a colonial empire, increased without effort by the Spanish-American war, which to-day

to strengthen the bonds of association with the several parts, and to promote the general harmony of the whole. In this, as was to be expected, Canada has had not only the sympathy and understanding, but the hearty cooperation of the authorities in Great Britain and India as well." *Ibid.*, p. 10.

totals an area of 716,555 square miles in extent and includes Alaska, Porto Rico, the Panama Canal Zone, Hawaii, the Philippines, two little specks in the Tutuila Group and the Ladrões which cannot be seen on the map without the aid of a microscope. It was not long until we were confronted in our Pacific possessions, in Hawaii and the Philippines, with difficulties similar to those which are almost an annual occurrence in the British dominions the world over and which cause the Foreign Office at Downing Street ceaseless anxieties. As the result of the war with Spain we found ourselves, whether we wished or no, a world power, with international relations involving international responsibilities in all the minute distinctions which those terms imply. Like Canada, necessarily forced to harmonize her foreign policy in accordance with that of the mother country, we were now compelled to deal with questions of grave significance, not as a nation selfishly wrapped up within our four boundaries but occupying, by virtue of our outlying dependencies, a position which carried with it all the unique obligations of comity and reciprocity to be associated with the other great powers, involving diplomacy and national conduct of an entirely different nature than that to which we heretofore had been accustomed. It was not surprising, therefore, that the Chinese problem should again come up for consideration, and here we proved ourselves to be painfully consistent with our past legislation by disposing of the matter in a way which might aptly be termed a lack of international foresight.

By a joint resolution of July 7, 1898, it was declared that "there shall be no further immigration of Chinese into the Hawaiian Islands, except upon such conditions as are now or may hereafter be allowed by the laws of the United States; and no Chinese, by reason of anything herein contained, shall be allowed to enter the United States from the Hawaiian Islands."¹⁹ By the act of April 30, 1900,²⁰ "all persons who were citizens of the Republic of Hawaii on August twelfth, eighteen hundred and ninety-eight, are hereby declared to be citizens of the United States and citizens of the Territory of Hawaii."²¹ Chinese residing in these Islands were given one year in which to obtain certificates of residence, and if at the end of the said year they had provided themselves with such certificates, they "shall not be deemed to be unlawfully in the United States," but it

¹⁹ 30 Stat., p. 751.

²⁰ 31 Stat., pp. 141-161.

²¹ *Ibid.*, Sec. 4.

was expressly stipulated that "no Chinese laborer, whether he shall hold such certificate or not, shall be allowed to enter any state, territory or district of the United States from the Hawaiian Islands."²² Thus by the last clause, whether the Chinese laborer were *registered or not*, he was denied entrance to the mainland of the United States or any possession thereof.²³ As regards the exempt classes of Chinese "who are citizens or subjects of other insular territory of the United States than the Territory of Hawaii," these were permitted "to go from such insular territory to the mainland or from one insular territory to another," provided that they obtained the required certificate, but with the saving clause that "the privilege of transit shall be extended to all persons other than laborers," and should not apply to one of the excluded class, even if he were registered. Furthermore, "subjects of the Chinese Empire of the exempt classes residing in Hawaii must obtain certificates from the representative of their own government (the Chinese consul, Honolulu), and such certificates must be viséed by the inspector in charge of the immigration service in said Islands instead of by a diplomatic or consular officer."

In the Philippines we started off badly. By an order of General Otis, September 26, 1898, all Chinese were prohibited from coming to the Islands except the exempt classes who were lawfully able to enter the United States and laborers who had formerly resided in Manila and for the time being were absent. This order was characterized by the Department of State as "incident to the military administration," and allowed because "it seems appropriate and desirable not to interfere with the discretion of the military commander," but that "the measure he (Otis) had adopted should not be regarded as in pursuance of a settled policy on the part of the United States government."²⁴ Minister Wu, at Washington, protested, however, on the grounds that the order was not needed as a military measure, that the determination of the status of these new possessions was thus taken from Congress and that the friendly relations with China were thereby disturbed. Acting Secretary of State Hill, in

²² 31 Stat., Sec. 101.

²³ However, "as all persons who were citizens of the Republic of Hawaii on August 12, 1898, are citizens of the United States, persons of the Chinese race claiming such status may be admitted at either mainland or insular ports of entry upon producing evidence sufficient to establish such claim." *Regulations*, Rule 11, (b). Thus such a laborer could not be excluded, as he was a citizen. 23 Op. Atty. Gen., 345 and 509.

²⁴ U. S. *Foreign Relations*, 1899, pp. 209, 211, 212; Moore's *Digest*, vol. iv, pp. 234, 235.

a communication to Lord Pauncefote, as to whether "Chinese persons who are British subjects are permitted to travel in the Philippine Islands," replied as follows:

"1. Chinese persons are to be excluded from the Philippines, 'whether subjects of China or any other foreign power.

"2. That such exclusion is a military measure adopted to meet existing military necessity. Being a military expedient, it is not to be considered as in any way affecting the permanent policy of the government of the Islands under the conditions of peace.

"3. The military order relating to said exclusion did not extend the Chinese-exclusion acts of the United States Congress to and over the Philippine Islands as a law of the United States; the provisions of said acts were adopted as appropriate remedies for the military necessity, and made operative independently of the statute by authority resulting from military occupation."²⁵

The halfway concession to China contained in the last paragraph of the above could not have been expected to continue, as the United States, considering the popular ignorance of the real Chinese question at home, necessarily had to be consistent in its policy in the Philippines as in Hawaii and the mainland, and this it proceeded to do, in spite of the fact that the Asiatic possessions were next door to China and largely under Chinese influence. Therefore, by the act of April 27, 1904, it was stipulated that the exclusion laws "are hereby re-enacted, extended, and continued, without modification, limitation, or condition; and said laws shall also apply to the island territory under the jurisdiction of the United States, and prohibit the immigration of Chinese laborers, not citizens of the United States, from such island territory to the mainland territory of the United States, whether in such island territory at the time of cession or not, and from one portion of the said island territory of the United States to another portion of said island territory," but it was provided that the "said laws shall not apply to the transit of Chinese laborers from one island to another island of the same group."²⁶ Thus the policy of exclusion was now rounded out and completed in all the lands governed by the United States, even to those in Asiatic waters, and once more the Chinese arguments and appeals for the suspension

²⁵ Acting Secretary of State Hill to Lord Pauncefote, May 7, 1901, *Foreign Relations*, 1901, p. 214; Moore's *Digest*, vol. iv, pp. 235, 236.

²⁶ Act of April 29, 1902, as amended and re-enacted by section 5 of the Deficiency Act of April 27, 1904; 32 Stat., Part 1, p. 176; 33 Stat., pp. 394-428.

of this objectionable discrimination, or at least a diminution as far as the Philippine Islands were concerned, met with disregard and failure.

There is another contrast worthy of mention between the United States and Canada and that is in regard to the settlement of the opium question. England, as is well known, has been making strenuous efforts within the past years to atone for the calamitous results of the war of 1840 with China, and in this she has been ably seconded by her dependencies, notably Canada, which passed an act in 1911 "to prohibit the improper use of opium and other drugs."²⁷ This comprehensive statute made it a "criminal offense" for anyone who, "without lawful or reasonable excuse, imports, sells, offers for sale, has in his possession, or takes or carries, or causes to be taken or carried, from any place in Canada to any other place in Canada, any drug for other than scientific or medicinal purposes." As to the vicious use of the compound, "every person who smokes opium, or who, without lawful or reasonable excuse, has in his possession opium prepared or being prepared for smoking, shall be guilty of a criminal offense," and furthermore, "any person who, without lawful and reasonable excuse, is found in any house, room or place to which persons resort for the purpose of smoking or inhaling opium," is liable, as in all these infractions, to conviction, fine, and imprisonment, or both, by law. Those who are by the act competent to deal in the fearful narcotic are carefully enumerated, and its use for medicinal prescriptions is similarly defined. So serious is the opium danger regarded, and rightly so, that search warrants are allowed in suspected cases, and the drugs and receptacles, if found, are to be seized and the owners punished.

The Canadian law is applicable to the entire Dominion, and as such is capable of universal enforcement, in Ontario as in British Columbia. Now a word as to the difficulties confronting American legislation on this same evil, one of the most deplorable and degrading of human vices. There is a general federal law which prohibits interstate traffic in opium, but further than this the national government cannot proceed, and the necessary enactments to purge the country of this appalling danger is left by virtue of the constitution to the various state governments. The latest illustration of how this division of power really works, in questions affecting the vitality

²⁷ 1-2 George V, Chap. 17, assented to 19th May, 1911.

of the entire nation as in the one under consideration, is found in a recent case in Philadelphia, where the police magistrate discharged three merchants arraigned on the charge of selling opium. These were released from custody because the present law of Pennsylvania, one of the most progressive states of the Union, forbids the possession of an opium pipe but does nothing more, not even forbidding the sale or the use of the opiate. The only way that convictions can be secured is in accordance with the drug law, which prohibits the sale of drugs having a sufficient percentage of poison to kill the consumer. Dr. Koch, vice-president of the State Pharmaceutical Board, said: "We knew that the legal aspects of opium prosecutions would become public sooner or later. We did not wish to make any public announcement because we desired to have enacted a flawless law. . . . An opium bill, just and applicable to traffic in opium in every form, was presented to the last general assembly, but was defeated." Magistrate Gorman made the announcement, after releasing the three merchants, that "it is perfectly legal for anyone to sell or purchase opium in this state. And as far as the law is concerned, anyone has a right to smoke opium, in a store, in the streets, or in their homes."²⁸

Such is the status of the opium question at the present time of writing in the State of Pennsylvania, one of the bulwarks of the American Union, whose law, enacted some thirty years ago, forbids neither the sale nor the use of the drug, nothing but "a pearl inlaid pipe and a peanut oil burning lamp." In contrast to this we have the excellent example of Canada's successful legislation before us, a comprehensive law applicable over the entire Dominion without preliminary hair-splitting arguments as in the United States, whether the statute is constitutional or not, or might by some legal twist of language violate one of the sacred prerogatives of our forty-eight almost sovereign states. If we wish to be successful in our foreign relations in all their various aspects, it will be necessary for us first of all to put our house in order, to reach some understanding among ourselves whereby all problems touching upon international relations in whatever form would be successfully treated either by our forty-eight governments alike, which is impossible, or solely by the central authority, which is the logical and ultimate solution. A situation such as the one cited gives weight to the desire already strongly

²⁸ Philadelphia *Public Ledger*, November 25, 1912, p. 1.

expressed that all questions dealing with the moral and physical welfare of the people be delegated by the states to the federal government, so that by one law, as in Canada, all evils and corruptions similar to the above can be dealt with promptly, uniformly and efficaciously, covering equally and without discrimination every phase and character of our complex national life.

By the comparisons herein set forth it must be admitted that Canada has solved the Chinese question, which is by no means as serious as some American publicists would have us believe, in a manner far more satisfactory than the entire record of our legislation on the subject. Beginning with the agitation for exclusion our laws have been consistently a series of petty irritations and discriminations which do not speak well for our vaunted ideals on race equality and opportunity; and as far as the Chinese nation is concerned our Declaration of Independence might as well have been a dead letter. Of course the situation is above the ordinary international complications, but it is far from being a "yellow peril" or a menace to our social and industrial institutions. What we need to do is to make at least an effort to understand the Orient, to try to appreciate the Chinese viewpoint. What is still more urgent and in need of immediate attention is the thorough overhauling of our regulations concerning the Chinese on the basis of an intelligent, equitable and scientific treatment, which, if done long ago, would have produced an immense amount of good and would have prevented the greater amount of harm which has resulted from these self-same restrictions.

China has at last reached the definite parting of the ways between the old and the new, and the Orient, self-sufficient for centuries, is now merging with the Occident to an extent unappreciated in America. Though there was nothing spectacular about the Chinese revolution, yet it accomplished its purpose, and to-day a new republic is waiting to be received into the family of nations. Coincident with this change of government, or rather antedating it by a decade at least, is the tremendous revival of Chinese learning, not the antiquated style of canonical aphorisms which had been followed for ages but an intensely absorbing study of world politics, of world economics, of all matters which are vital to a world power of the twentieth century. Under such a system of national scrutiny it was inevitable that the American policy of exclusion should be subjected to keen criticism and disparaging judgment, which will

cause a further decided retrogression of American prestige and commerce if our unwise attitude towards China and the Chinese is not materially altered. Young China has ceased to be a theory and is now a fact, a living, dynamic force of enormous potentialities. What the ultimate results will be when this undeveloped energy which has lain dormant for a thousand years is fully awakened only the future can reveal. Therefore it stands all the more to reason that our hackneyed system will not bear analysis in the face of this modern Chinese renaissance, and that if we wish to regain the position we once held, or even retain what we have, it will be necessary for us to act quickly and decisively. We have a splendid opportunity offered us, which carries with it however the ultimatum that we must conform our national policy to the actualities of the present day, and for this necessary readjustment the writer advances the following propositions:

- I. Recognition of the Chinese Republic.
- II. Abrogation of the treaties and conventions in force with China and immediate legislation embracing mutual comity, reciprocity and most-favored-nation clauses.
- III. Repeal of the exclusion laws and regulations and the substitution of a sufficiently prohibitive head-tax to keep out undesirable immigration.

It has been the national dictum of our republic ever since its foundation, and thoroughly grounded into us by the Genêt experience, to avoid all entangling alliances with other powers and to keep our foreign affairs distinct and separate from the interests of Europe. Thus every act which might have some bearing upon international relations has been carefully weighed by the State Department before receiving the sanction of the government. But this undue caution, while entirely laudable in itself, yet reacts to our detriment in certain instances where there is little or no justification for such a course. An example of how we are injuring ourselves by relying too much upon our past conduct is in delaying the recognition of the Chinese republic, which, beyond a doubt, is to-day an accomplished fact and gives every indication of growing strength and increasing activity. Of course, this reticence on our part is perfectly understandable by a review of our history, being the logical resultant of that period when the fear of Napoleon, of Metternich and the so-called Holy Alliance lay heavily upon us. But it is not to be expected that

the Chinese know American history, consequently our ingrained attitude is incomprehensible to them and our continued passivity in this matter of recognition has been received by them with pained surprise which is rapidly being changed to anger and a desire in some way to retaliate.

We are looked upon by China and other nations, even by Europe, as the leading exponent of republican institutions by virtue of the fact that our form of government, a dubious experiment at its inception, has proven itself to mankind, and, besides accelerating the greatest revolution the world has ever seen, has resulted in numerous duplications, the latest of which is China. Therefore the Chinese turn first to us for our approval because of our exalted position, but as yet we have failed to give the least sign of official encouragement. We made the same blunder with the South American republics in their struggle for liberty and at the time when their independence had become an indisputable reality, and in spite of the incalculable benefits of the Monroe Doctrine, they have not forgotten nor forgiven our lack of judgment, our want of tact, our inability to foresee the future by delaying this comparatively simple matter of recognition, which, after a certain stage in the affairs of the revolted people has been reached, is hardly more than a mere expression of sentiment, especially when a powerful nation confers it, yet which gives the grateful recipients an international status, and more than often results in a return of friendship and commercial benefits from them out of all proportion to the original risks involved. There is no doubt, for it is admitted by the Chinese themselves, that should we bestow this act of grace immediately upon the Republic of China, by this happy stroke of diplomacy we would add millions upon millions to our commerce and would re-establish ourselves in that enviable position which we once held, as the foremost friends and counsellor of this Asiatic power. What makes our bourgeois attitude all the more un-American is that in the Far East there is absolutely no valid excuse for delay. The United States has everything to gain and nothing to lose, without the least fear of international complications. Such act cannot affect our diplomatic relations with Europe regarding the Orient because as it is we have been practically isolated for the past few years, having incurred the covert hostility of the powers, with the possible exception of England, through our open-door policy. This consistent antagonism to the American programme

was sufficiently illustrated by the dismal reception given the Knox proposals to neutralize the Manchurian railways, and this temporary defeat proved that our ideas as to Chinese integrity and inviolability of sovereignty were not looked upon with favor by nations interested in obtaining their share of China when the drama of dissolution should finally occur. All danger of the latter contingency, however, has been removed by the astonishing rejuvenation of the intended victim, and in the place of the decrepit empire of the Manchus stands a young, vigorous, virile republic, waiting for our formal nod of recognition and unable to understand what reason we may have for hesitancy because there is none.

The abrogation of the present treaties and conventions in force with China is a comparatively easy matter, because we may by international law regard the change of government in China as sufficiently violent in form to justify ourselves in considering the relations entered into with the Manchu monarchy at an end, without waiting to resort to the customary diplomatic procedure. The next step would be the promulgation of a new treaty of mutual comity and reciprocity, which, however, must be supported by a national policy that would faithfully observe these stipulations, and would carry them into effect, instead of the combinations of meaningless phrases which constitute our present documents. It is difficult, in fact impossible, for us to orientate ourselves enough to appreciate the emotions of the Chinese in reading that by treaty they are given the right "to go and come of their own free will," and that "all the rights, privileges, immunities, and exemptions which are accorded to the citizens and subjects of the most-favored nation,"²⁹ shall likewise be extended to them, and that "if Chinese laborers, or Chinese of any other class, now either permanently or temporarily residing in the territory of the United States, meet with ill-treatment at the hands of any other persons, the government of the United States will exert all its power to devise measures for their protection and to secure to them the . . . rights . . . to which they are entitled by treaty."³⁰ Such articles, well meant at the time of ratification, have since become obsolete through consistent violations on the part of the United States by the statutory development of its exclusion policy, and the resulting temper of the Chinese is clearly brought

²⁹ *Treaty of 1880*; 22 Stat., 826, Art. ii.

³⁰ *Ibid.*, Art. iii.

out by the denunciation of the treaty of 1894 ten years later, which consequently expired by reason of such action. Therefore, to re-establish mutual and friendly relations with China, it will be necessary to draw up an entirely new treaty, one which would annul all present treaties and conventions in force and which would embody a real instead of an apparent mutuality of interests. This, if done without further hesitation, will again secure for us that primacy in the foreign affairs of China which we once held but forfeited through our inexcusable indifference and delay in adjusting existing wrongs, and which, unless we act quickly, will be extremely difficult to regain.

Patriotism is one of the few universal virtues. It is found alike in the great powers as in nations that have been neutralized to preserve their identity. China possesses this inestimable quality no less than the United States, though in a far different degree. The patriotism of the Chinese is that higher patriotism which stimulates a Christian love for peace and a Roman love for order and for stability. By the teachings of their philosophy and their religion they hold the soldier in contempt, whereas we cover him with tinsel, set him upon a pedestal and worship him. In return we regard their abhorrence for war as an evidence of weakness and want of national character, yet, according to the religion which we ourselves profess to follow, the Chinese are right and we are wrong.

What has this to do with exclusion? Simply that by our regulations against the Chinese we have failed to take into account a proper appreciation of their national characteristics; that we have refused to recognize in them this essence of patriotism which has been so brilliantly illustrated within the last two years and in that quarter of the world where it was least expected. Not alone have we singled them out for exclusion from all the rest of mankind, but by the same laws we have denied them the right to citizenship, which act, unjustifiable in any sense whatsoever, is the sum total of indignity which one nation can heap upon another. All of this was very well in the days when China, under the Empress-Dowager was supremely content with herself and chose to be non-existent to Europe and America, but the days of seclusion, however, are past. This is an age of international stress and rivalry in commerce, politics and diplomacy, and which was made clear to China by the bitter humiliations of the Japanese war, the territorial aggressions of the powers and the Boxer rebellion. Forced to accept modern conditions or

suffer dissolution, China cast aside the shell of antiquity and by rapid, heartbreaking efforts has succeeded in attaining a position of eminence which henceforth will demand respect to this republic as a nation, a race, and a sovereign entity. No longer will it be possible to insult the Chinese with impunity, and the power that has the most to learn in this regard is the United States.

Our exclusion laws have proven a failure, not through the fault of the Bureau of Immigration, which is composed of excellent and efficient officers, but from the very nature of the regulations. The fact that our country is barred to them naturally makes the excluded class of Chinese all the more eager to enter, and to attain this purpose they resort to bribery, fraud, deceit, cunning, to all the manifold tricks which Americans themselves would employ if China were still the forbidden land. The result means disregard and contempt for the law in every successful instance, of which there are legion, for when an Oriental matches his wits against the Anglo-Saxon, it is a foregone conclusion who will get the better of the argument. According to the Commissioner General of Immigration, there "are some causes for congratulation and optimism, but many more reasons for feeling that the present statutes are wholly insufficient to maintain the long and frequently avowed policy of excluding from this country laborers of the Chinese race," and, "it must be realized and conceded that, unless some change is made in the law, such immigration will constantly increase in the future."³¹ Thus by the admission of the highest officer in authority it is seen that our laws have failed in total exclusion, and by reason of such failure have nullified the only motive for their existence. Yet for this discredited system, incapable of rigid enforcement, and therefore useless, we are endangering our commerce, our friendly relations, our entire future in the Far East. It must not be supposed that China desires the coolie to emigrate. The republic, for the sake of its own prestige and interests abroad, prefers to keep him at home. But it is not to be expected that China will give a helping hand in solving our difficulties in the face of the unfair discriminations and colossal blunders that still remain on our statute books. The remedy is clear and simple; by following the suggestions discussed above by the writer, of repealing these ineffective laws and emulating Canada in imposing a sufficiently burdensome head-tax to keep out undesirable immi-

³¹ *Annual Report of Commissioner General of Immigration*, 1911. Washington, 1912, p. 143.

gration, and by further limiting the number of arrivals on each ship or for each year, the question would rapidly solve itself, besides securing the hearty cooperation and good-will of both nations concerned. The result would be not only a cause for gratification but the knowledge that by such conciliatory and equitable means we have safely accomplished our purpose without giving offense to the Republic of China and without apology for or blemish to our national ideals.

THE MINERAL RESOURCES OF CANADA¹

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The mines and quarries of Canada during 1910, the latest year for which complete figures are available, yielded an output valued at \$106,823,623 and furnished employment to, exclusive of those engaged in the production of placer gold and petroleum, over 62,000 men earning more than \$37,000,000 in wages.² For 1911 the total value of the mineral production has been estimated at \$102,291,686, the decrease, as compared with the figures for 1910, being probably due to labor troubles in certain mining centers.

The following table indicates the rapid growth of the mineral industry since 1886, the first year for which complete figures are available:

TABLE 1.—VALUE OF ANNUAL MINERAL PRODUCTION OF CANADA

Year	Value
1886.....	\$10,221,255
1890.....	16,763,353
1895.....	20,605,917
1900.....	64,420,877
1905.....	69,078,999
1910.....	106,823,633

During the period of twenty-four years in part covered by the above table, the annual rate of mineral production increased tenfold and marked changes took place in the proportional amounts furnished by the regions now leading in mineral bearing. In 1886 over one-half of the value of the total mineral production was furnished by the region lying east of the St. Lawrence River, that is, by southeastern Quebec, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia. If the figures for structural materials and clay products are excluded,

¹ Published by permission of the Director of the Geological Survey of Canada.

² For these and other statistics see *Annual Report of the Mineral Production of Canada during the Calendar Year 1910*, by J. McLeish. Canada: Department of Mines.

the eastern region contributed two-thirds of the total, while only one-seventh came from British Columbia in western Canada.

In 1886 the coal production of the country amounted to only slightly over 2,000,000 tons. Of this total less than one-seventh was produced in western Canada and this small proportion was almost entirely furnished by the long-established coal mines of Vancouver Island. In the same year British Columbia yielded placer gold to the value of nearly \$1,000,000, but in this province lode mining was practically non-existent. In Ontario, in 1886, a small amount of copper was produced for the first time from the Sudbury deposits then being developed purely as copper mines, the valuable nickel contents of the ores not having yet been discovered. The petroleum and salt industries were firmly established in the southwestern part of the same province. In southeastern Quebec, asbestos deposits were being mined, but the total production was still comparatively low. The copper and sulphide ores of the same region were also being mined. In the Atlantic provinces of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, the mining of gypsum, of gold and of coal was being actively prosecuted.

By 1895 the value of the total annual mineral production had doubled that of 1886. The mineral yield of each of the three chief mineral regions had increased, but at different rates. The output of the region lying east of the St. Lawrence amounted to only one-quarter instead of one-half of the total value of the mineral production, while British Columbia furnished one-third instead of one-seventh, and the output of the mineral-bearing, northern and western, portion of Ontario amounted in value to nearly one-tenth of the total.

The marked changes in the relative productions, for the year 1895, of the eastern and western parts of the country had been partly brought about by the discovery in British Columbia of the rich copper-gold ores of Rossland and of the widely distributed silver-lead deposits of the southeastern part of the same province. The changes in the proportion of the totals furnished by the different regions were due also in part to coal production, for though the coal mines of the eastern region still lead and yielded nearly three-fifths of the total tonnage, yet the higher prices received in the West raised the value of the coal produced on Vancouver Island to an amount nearly equal to that of Nova Scotia's yield. By 1895 the metallif-

erous region of northern and western Ontario had become more important, largely because of the impetus added to the development of the Sudbury region owing to the recognition of the valuable nickel contents of its copper ores.

In the five years from the close of 1895 to 1900, the mineral output of Canada trebled in value. In 1900 the eastern region furnished less than one-quarter, while the western region produced nearly two-thirds of the value of Canada's mineral output. The proportion furnished by northern Ontario had decreased to about one-twelfth. The marked advance in the production of 1900 over that of 1895 was due almost altogether to the notable increase of nearly \$25,000,000 in the value of the gold production; to an increase of \$6,500,000 in the value of the coal output; to an increase of over \$2,000,000 in the value of copper produced, and of nearly the same amounts in the case of lead and of nickel; and of about \$1,700,000 in the case of silver. The great increase in gold production was due very largely to the Klondike placer gold field discovered in 1897, the yield from this and adjacent fields amounting to \$22,275,000. The remaining increase in gold production was furnished mainly by the copper-gold mines of British Columbia. The main increase in the coal output came from the Nova Scotian fields, though the production of the western coal fields had increased at a greater rate. Nearly three-quarters of the increase of the copper output, and the whole of the increased output of lead and of silver was attributable to the development of the mining centers of southern British Columbia.

In 1910 the value of the total mineral production was over ten times larger than that of 1886 and was greater than that of 1900 by about \$42,000,000, an advance of over 60 per cent. In 1910, the proportion of the total value of the mineral output (excluding, as before, building materials and clay products) furnished by the above-mentioned three regions was very different from that of the earlier periods. Western Canada, including British Columbia and Yukon Territory, together with northern Ontario, furnished in value three-quarters of the mineral output of the country, and this large proportion was equally divided between the two regions. The country east of the St. Lawrence contributed only about one-fifth, not, as in 1886, two-thirds, of the total.

The increase in the value of the mineral production of 1910

over that of 1900 was due largely to the following increases: an increase of above \$13,000,000 in the value of structural materials and clay products; of nearly \$8,000,000 in the case of nickel; of about \$4,000,000 in the case of copper; of over \$15,000,000 in silver; of nearly \$2,000,000 in that of asbestos and of about \$17,000,000 in coal. Against these increases must be set a decrease in the gold production of over \$17,000,000, due to the greatly lowered output of the Yukon placer fields.

The marked decrease in the gold production of the western region of Canada combined with the large yield of silver from northern Ontario, derived almost entirely from the rich Cobalt field, and the increased copper and nickel production of the Sudbury camp in the same general district, had elevated the northern region to a rank equal with that of the western field. The great increase in the metalliferous output of these two regions had placed both of them far in advance of the eastern region whose chief product in 1910, as in 1886, was coal. But whereas in 1886 nearly the whole of Canada's coal production, then amounting to about 2,000,000 tons, was furnished by Nova Scotia, in 1910 almost exactly one-half of the total production of nearly 13,000,000 tons came from western Canada and in a large measure from coal fields unknown or unworked in 1886.

As may be seen from the tabular statement of the production for 1910 (see page 135), nearly one-third of the total value is to be credited to coal, a seventh to silver, a tenth to nickel and a tenth to gold. Approximately one-sixth of the total represents the value of structural materials and clay products which, though rightly credited to the mineral production of Canada, yet more nearly reflects the commercial development rather than the mining progress of the country.

Though the value of the annual production has now reached the large sum of over \$100,000,000 per year, yet there are reasons for believing that these figures very inadequately indicate the potential mineral wealth of Canada. By far the greater part of the country is still practically unprospected, its mineral wealth untouched. How little is actually known regarding the mineral possibilities of Canada has recently been clearly indicated by Mr. R. W. Brock, Director of the Geological Survey of Canada. He pointed out by way of an illustration that the country lying to the north of

Toronto would probably have been considered in 1902 as having been prospected considerably further north than Lake Timiskaming, yet at that date only a few miles west of this lake lay the undiscovered silver veins of Cobalt, whose production at the present day places Canada third in rank amongst the silver producing countries of the world.

The following is quoted from the same writer:

To realize the unprospected nature of the country, it is only necessary to remember that the greatest asbestos deposits of the world were brought to notice by blasting the Quebec Central Railway through them; that the greatest corundum deposits extending in a belt a hundred miles long, were found in a settled district by an officer of the Survey only twelve years ago (written in 1909); that the Sudbury nickel deposits were discovered by putting a railway through them; that Cobalt, now the premier silver camp, although only a few miles from one of the earliest routes of travel in the country, and only a few miles from a silver-lead deposit known a hundred and fifty years ago, was discovered less than six years ago, and then only by means of a railway cutting through a rich vein.

TABLE 2.—MINERAL PRODUCTION OF CANADA FOR 1910

Product	Value	Per cent of Total Value
Gold.....	\$10,205,835	9.55
Silver.....	17,580,455	16.45
Copper.....	7,094,094	6.64
Nickel.....	11,181,310	10.46
Lead.....	1,216,249	1.14
Pig iron and iron ore.....	1,975,035	1.83
Coal.....	30,909,779	28.93
Asbestos.....	2,573,603	2.49
Petroleum and natural gas.....	1,735,021	1.61
Gypsum.....	934,446	0.86
Structural materials and clay products.....	19,627,592	18.37
All others.....	1,790,204	1.67
	\$106,823,623	100.00

From what has been stated it is apparent that even the districts over which mining is now in progress can scarcely be said to be prospected and these districts form only a very small fraction of the 3,729,665 square miles of Canadian territory. In the imperfectly prospected and unprospected regions there is an almost unlimited area over which the geological conditions are similar to those

of districts of known mineral wealth. The presence of like geological conditions implies the existence of like mineral deposits, for experience has demonstrated that the mineral deposits of any given district have resulted, directly or indirectly, from the action of the same general forces that gave rise to the broader geological structures and features of the region. Therefore, in order to indicate approximately only the probable extent and value of the mineral resources of a country, it is necessary to give at least a broadly generalized description of its geological features.

Canada may be divided into six great regions, each distinguished by a certain uniformity of broadly developed physical and geological features and characterized by the presence of special types of mineral deposits. One region, known as the Laurentian Plateau, includes approximately one-half of the area of Canada. It extends, with constantly diverging east and west boundaries, from the districts about Lake Superior, northward to the Arctic Ocean. This great expanse of country, situated towards the center of Canada, is occupied almost exclusively by rocks of pre-Cambrian age, that is, belonging to the oldest of the great systems of strata exposed over the surface of the earth. Over considerable areas the ancient measures are preserved with many of their original characters, but over other great stretches of country the strata have been folded, contorted and greatly altered. They have also been penetrated and enclosed by large and small bodies of granitic rocks now laid bare over the greater part of the region as the result of great cycles of erosion that have largely swept away the original covering of pre-Cambrian strata. The region of the Laurentian Plateau is, on the whole, an unknown country, but it is presumably rich in mineral wealth, since within the relatively narrow limits of the southern, better known portions, are situated many mines producing nickel, copper, silver, gold, iron, mica, graphite, etc.

The great central area of the Laurentian Plateau is bounded, except along the North Atlantic coast of Labrador, by stretches of plain-like country in some places lying at sea level, in others rising to a considerable altitude. All of these areas are underlaid by nearly flat-lying, relatively undisturbed, sedimentary strata. These measures, during successive geological eras, were formed either in seas that surrounded and in part swept over the area of the Laurentian Plateau, or else were deposited in large bodies of fresh or

brackish water or over flood plains during intervals of time while the regions in question were temporarily freed from the invading seas.

The areas encircling the Laurentian Plateau are divisible into three geological provinces. On the north, the Arctic Archipelago extends far northwards towards the North Pole. On the west side, is the region of the Interior Continental Plain, the great wheat field of Canada. On the east side, lie the St. Lawrence Lowlands, bordering the lower Great Lakes and forming the valley of the St. Lawrence River. Within these three regions metalliferous deposits are almost entirely wanting, but their absence is in a measure compensated by the presence of petroleum, natural gas and salt districts and, in the Interior Continental Plain region, of immense stores of coal.

The two still undescribed major geological provinces form respectively the eastern and western portions of Canada. Both are mountain-built provinces characterized by the presence of sedimentary and volcanic strata which, laid down with horizontal attitudes during various eras from pre-Cambrian time onwards, have since been flexed and faulted and invaded by bodies of igneous rocks. The eastern geological province is known as the Appalachian region, and though much of the country may be truly termed mountainous, yet when compared with the western counterpart, it is more appropriately described as hilly. The western province is known as the Cordilleran region and includes the Canadian portion of the lofty, rugged, mountain systems that form the Pacific border of the whole length of the North American continent.

Both the Appalachian region on the east and the Cordilleran region on the west contain metalliferous deposits and coal-bearing strata, but the Cordilleran region is not only of much greater area, but is also much richer in mineral wealth. Within its bounds, in the northern portion, lie the world-famous gold fields of the Klondike. In the southern, better known portion of the region are many mining centers producing gold, copper, silver, lead, zinc, etc., while the region as a whole is rich in coal. The Appalachian region, though it is much poorer in coal than the western mountain province, yet annually produces nearly the same amount. The eastern region is also poorer in other respects, but contains the most important asbestos producing area in the world as well as notable deposits of copper, gold, iron, etc.

Of the six major geological provinces, all, except the Arctic Archipelago, at the present time contribute to the mineral production of the country. In the following table is presented a statement showing for each division the approximate value of the mineral yield, exclusive of structural materials and clay products. These figures should not be taken as directly indicating the relative mineral wealth of the various regions, for the annual production of a district depends largely on conditions that are in a considerable measure independent of the extent and value of its mineral resources. Among such governing factors may be mentioned the presence or absence of transportation facilities and all the longseries of implied conditions.

TABLE 3.—MINERAL PRODUCTION (EXCLUSIVE OF STRUCTURAL MATERIALS AND CLAY PRODUCTS) BY GEOLOGICAL PROVINCES, FOR 1910

Product	Appalachian Region	St. Lawrence Lowlands	Laurentian Plateau	Interior Continental Plain	Cordilleran Region
Gold.....	\$166,456	\$63,849	\$1,850	\$9,973,680
Silver.....	4,061	16,241,755	1,334,639
Copper.....	111,757	2,453,213	4,529,124
Nickel.....	11,181,310
Lead.....	1,216,249
Pig iron and iron ore.	123,849	1,851,186
Coal.....	13,030,615	2,069,000	15,810,164
Asbestos.....	2,573,603
Petroleum and natural gas.....	1,826	\$1,658,027	75,168
Gypsum.....	672,217	67,229	195,000
All others.....	169,226	593,951	908,784	118,243
Total.....	16,853,610	2,319,207	32,700,097	2,341,018	32,982,099
Per cent of total for Canada.....	19.3	2.6	37.6	2.7	37.8

One striking feature brought out by means of the above table is the practically complete absence of metalliferous deposits in the regions of the St. Lawrence Lowlands and the Interior Continental Plain, for the trifling gold production credited to the latter region is placer gold, whose ultimate source lies outside of this geological province. A second point worthy of emphasis is the large coal productions credited to the Appalachian region in the east and the Cordilleran region in the west. The Interior Continental Plain region in the near future will take rank as a coal-producing area

with these two regions; for the present active development of this great wheat-growing region will inevitably lead to an energetic exploitation of its extensive coal resources.

The *Appalachian Region* has an area of approximately 80,000 square miles and includes the three Atlantic provinces of Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island and New Brunswick, and also a large part of that portion of the adjoining province of Quebec situated on the southeast side of the St. Lawrence River. The extent of the mineral resources of a not inconsiderable portion of this region is still practically unknown, although the area in general was colonized at an early date and was the scene of some of the earliest attempts at mining in Canada.

In the Appalachian region coal is by far the most important product of the mine, for it furnishes slightly over three-quarters of the total annual value of the mineral production of the region exclusive of building materials and clay products. The coal is all of the bituminous variety and in distribution is confined to Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. In 1910 these two provinces produced slightly more than 6,500,000 tons, or a little over one-half of the total tonnage produced in all Canada. Of the total production, about the whole came from four comparatively limited coal fields situated in Nova Scotia and nearly three-quarters of the amount was furnished by the Sydney coal field.

The presence of coal in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick was recognized by the French early in the seventeenth century, but it was not for a hundred years or more, or until about 1720, that serious mining operations were commenced. Since then the Nova Scotian fields have furnished more than 125,000,000 tons of coal, of which total over one-half was produced during the last twelve years.

It has been estimated that the reserves of easily mineable coal in the Nova Scotian fields exceed 6,000,000,000 tons and that the New Brunswick fields may contain about 150,000,000 tons. Future developments may show a greater reserve of coal in the different fields or even lead to the recognition of new fields, but it seems entirely probable that the total coal resources will eventually be proven to be of the above-stated order of magnitude, and that the present Nova Scotian fields will continue to be the chief producers.

Next to coal, asbestos is at present the most important mineral

product of the Appalachian region. The mining of this mineral is centered about the town of Thetford in southeastern Quebec, and from an area of a very few square miles is furnished the greater part of the total asbestos supply of the world. The commercial exploitation of the asbestos deposits commenced in 1878 and since then approximately 780,000 tons of asbestos valued at nearly \$30,000,000 have been produced. Though the present fairly constant yearly rate of production entails the annual quarrying of approximately 1,500,000 tons of asbestos-bearing rock, yet the deposits give no indications of failing and a long future life seems assured.

Closely connected with the asbestos deposits, both geographically and geologically, are two other classes of deposits, one yielding chromium, the other copper, sulphur, and minor amounts of gold and silver. The chromite deposits occur in the same district and in the same rocks as the asbestos. Though the ore bodies are in many cases of considerable magnitude, yet the annual production has never been large.

The copper and sulphur producing ore bodies are confined to a belt of igneous rocks extending in a northeasterly direction through southern Quebec for a distance of over 150 miles. At many points in this general district important deposits of this class are known to occur. The mining of these ores has been long established and, in the last twenty-five years the region has yielded over 65,000,000 pounds of copper. The present comparatively low annual production does not by any means indicate an approaching exhaustion of the field.

The gypsum deposits of the Appalachian region, according to the value of the present annual production, rank third amongst the mineral resources of the region. The production is largely from two centers, one in Nova Scotia, the other in New Brunswick, but large deposits occur in a number of other districts in these two provinces and also in the Magdalen Islands in the Gulf of St. Lawrence. In 1910 about 490,000 tons with a value of \$670,000 was mined, while in the last twenty-five years the total tonnage won from these almost inexhaustible deposits has been nearly 6,000,000 tons.

The gold production of the Appalachian region is derived almost entirely from the Nova Scotian gold fields. A trifling amount is obtained from the copper-bearing deposits of southeastern Quebec

and a small amount from certain placer deposits in the same general district. In the past, however, these placer deposits were a comparatively important source of the precious metal and the field even now is by no means exhausted. As already stated, the main gold production of the Appalachian region comes from the gold fields of the Atlantic seaboard of Nova Scotia. The gold occurs in quartz veins developed with a wonderful regularity of structure in very many districts over a general region of approximately 8,500 square miles. Since the discovery of the precious metal in this area in 1860, over 2,000,000 tons of quartz have been crushed, from which gold to the value of about \$17,500,000 has been extracted. The annual rate of production reached a maximum in 1898 and since then has rapidly declined, not because of dwindling ore reserves, but from a variety of other causes.

The above-described classes of deposits furnish nearly the whole of the mineral output of the Appalachian region. Though in Nova Scotia there are large iron and steel plants, yet of the iron ore required by these industries only a trifling proportion is supplied by the region itself. Iron ore deposits, however, exist at many points in Nova Scotia and have been worked for very many years. Comparatively recently a group of large iron ore bodies have been discovered in northeastern New Brunswick. These bodies, now being developed, are situated on the outskirts of a large tract of country that still remains practically unknown.

Among the minor amounts contributing to the total value of the production of the Appalachian region for 1910, that credited to petroleum represents the production of a natural gas field then in the course of development. The value of this gas and oil field has since been established and gives promise of developing into an important center. In the same district are large deposits of oil shales of known great value.

To the above-described list of deposits many other classes might be added, many of which are of much more importance than the figures of production would indicate. Some of these, such as the tungsten deposits recently discovered, associated with the gold-bearing veins in Nova Scotia, are of importance, not only because of their actual commercial value, but as indicating that the full value of the region as a mineral-bearing territory is not yet known.

A considerable production of manganese ores of exceptional purity was at one time furnished by Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. Ores of antimony have been produced from two centers. Valuable deposits of barite, also of talc, occur at widely separated points and have been mined to a certain extent. Lead ores occur in many districts.

Many valuable deposits of clay, shale, etc., suitable for the manufacture of brick, tile and other clay products, occur throughout the region. Slate, building and ornamental stones of many kinds occur in numerous districts and have, in places, long been worked.

The *St. Lawrence Lowland* region lies to the west of the Appalachian region, between it and the Laurentian Plateau. The region is the smallest of the six major geological provinces of Canada and has an area of approximately only 35,000 square miles. It consists of a series of plain-like areas situated in the provinces of Quebec and Ontario, and extending from Quebec City on the east, up the St. Lawrence valley and along the northern sides of Lakes Ontario and Erie.

As already pointed out, the St. Lawrence Lowlands neither contain metalliferous deposits nor coal. But the region is by no means lacking in mineral wealth, for from the relatively small area of Ontario projecting as a peninsula between Lakes Huron and Erie, there are annually produced gypsum, salt, natural gas and petroleum of the value of above \$2,000,000. The gypsum deposits are relatively the least important of these, though the annual production is steadily increasing and in 1910 amounted to a value of \$67,000.

The first oil field of the above-mentioned district was found in 1862 and since that date there has been a very large total production. The annual yield reached a maximum in 1894, when approximately 29,000,000 gallons of crude petroleum were refined. Since then the annual production has notably decreased and in 1910 was less than one-half of the above amount. While some of the smaller districts or oil pools have been comparatively short lived, the one first discovered, nearly fifty years ago, still produces a large proportion of the total annual yield.

The natural gas fields of Ontario are situated in the same general district as the oil-producing centers, but extend over a greater

area. Unlike the petroleum industry, the production of natural gas in recent years has shown a very marked advance. The yield in 1910 was estimated to have had a value to the producers of an amount exceeding \$1,300,000.

The salt beds of Ontario are known to underlie, though not continuously, an area of about 2,500 square miles bordering Lake Huron and Detroit River. The salt occurs at considerable depths beneath the surface. The amount present in the district in general must be enormous, for in places the beds are known to attain a thickness of 200 feet. The salt is secured in the form of brine by forcing fresh water down bore-holes to the salt beds. In 1910 the amount of salt produced from this area reached above 80,000 tons valued at over \$400,000.

The region of the St. Lawrence Lowlands contains large deposits suitable for the manufacture of brick, tile, cement and other structural and clay products. The value of the annual production of such materials is above \$10,000,000.

The *Laurentian Plateau* borders the St. Lawrence Lowlands on the west and is the largest of the great geological provinces, its area being approximately 2,000,000 square miles. This region includes the greater part of the provinces of Quebec, Ontario and Manitoba, a part of Saskatchewan and a very large part of the Northwest Territories. It centers about Hudson's Bay and is triangular in outline, the base of the triangle fronting on the Arctic Ocean while the apex lies far to the south in United States territory south of Lake Superior.

The region is still practically a wilderness and within its bounds are great stretches of territory that have been traversed only by the explorer perhaps along a single water route. The portions that with any reasonable degree of accuracy may be claimed to be known, merely form a narrow fringe along the southern margin of the region. Within this better, though very imperfectly known, portion are situated the greatest nickel-producing mines and the premier silver camp of the world. The possibilities in the way of mineral resources of this region will be further appreciated if it be added that in the limited portion of the region extending southwards into the United States are situated the richest copper camp and the most important iron ore producing area of the world.

Of the total mineral production of the Laurentian Plateau

in 1910, nearly one-half, or above \$16,000,000, is credited to silver produced from the Cobalt field of northern Ontario. Discovered as recently as 1903, this field has already produced silver to the value of \$65,000,000 and the annual rate of production continues to increase, though possibly nearing a maximum. The ores of the camp occur in exceedingly rich, narrow veins. From one vein, in no place more than eight inches wide, there was extracted from an open cut 50 feet long and 25 feet deep, ore to the approximate value of over \$200,000. The ores, besides containing native silver and compounds of silver with other elements, also contain large amounts of nickel, cobalt and arsenic. For 1910 it is estimated that the ore mined contained besides silver, 604 tons of nickel, 1,098 tons of cobalt and 4,897 tons of arsenic. It is stated that these ores form the principal source of the world's supply of cobalt. Some portion of the nickel contents is conserved, and in 1910 about 1,500 tons of arsenic were produced.

Nearly 500 miles west of Cobalt there is another silver-bearing region bordering Lake Superior. Though mining and development work has been carried on intermittently for nearly half a century, there is at present little or no silver being produced in the district. In the past the greater part of the production came from one mine which in a few years produced silver to the value of above \$3,000,000. As pointed out by various writers, the mode of occurrence of the ores of silver in this western district is not altogether unlike the condition holding at Cobalt, and this similarity has given rise to the not unreasonable expectation that ultimately other silver-bearing deposits will be discovered within the 500 miles of country intervening between the two silver-bearing districts.

Next in rank to the silver mines of Cobalt are the nickel and copper-producing mines of Sudbury. Noticed in 1856 and re-discovered in 1883, the Sudbury field has since produced above 150,000 tons of nickel and 100,000 tons of copper. The ores also carry small amounts of platinum and palladium. These mines produce a very large part of the world's annual supply of nickel and the known ore reserves are very great.

The two districts of Cobalt and Sudbury in 1910 furnished minerals to the value of nearly \$30,000,000, or approximately 90 per cent of the mineral production of the Laurentian Plateau. The remaining 10 per cent is derived from a large number of sources,

representing various products the present annual rate of production of which is not commensurate with their known value.

Chief amongst the relatively minor products is that of iron ore. In 1910 about 230,000 tons of iron ore were produced from the region, coming from widely separated fields, the most westerly one lying west of Lake Superior and the most easterly being situated to the north of the eastern end of Lake Ontario. Bodies of iron ore are known to occur in scores of districts in the southern portion of the area of the Laurentian Plateau; they have also been found along the east coast of Hudson's Bay, in the center of the Labrador Peninsula and indications of their existence are recorded from the great region lying west of Hudson's Bay. The known occurrences, though very numerous, are undoubtedly only a small proportion of the total number of such deposits. Although under present conditions the ores in general are not of grade and quality high enough to encourage extensive development works, yet there can be no doubt that in the near future many of the now neglected deposits will be mined.

Gold-bearing deposits have been found and worked at many points in the southern portion of the region over an area stretching for 650 miles in an east and west direction. The first discovery was made as early as 1866, but the total production since then has been considerably smaller than \$3,000,000. Recently new fields have been discovered and renewed interest is being taken in the older districts.

The Laurentian Plateau is a region especially rich in pyritic ores valuable for their sulphur contents. Some of the known deposits are very large though untouched. In 1910 the output of pyritic ores was valued at about \$84,000.

Corundum, valuable as an abrasive, occurs in large amounts over a district seventy-five miles long, in southeastern Ontario. Only recently discovered, the deposits in 1910 produced an amount valued at nearly \$200,000.

A large district bordering both sides of the lower Ottawa River contains many deposits of graphite, apatite and mica. The mining of these minerals has been long established, though the total production at present is not very large. In 1910 approximately 1,400 tons of graphite were produced, while the mica mined was valued at \$190,000.

Besides the copper deposits of Sudbury, copper ores are known to occur at various points, particularly in the districts bordering Lake Superior and Lake Huron. One such occurrence in the past produced a large amount of copper.

Ores of lead and of zinc occur at widely separated points. Deposits of exceptionally pure feldspar, of actinolite, of quartz and other valuable products are known and, in places, are being worked. The territory in general is rich in building and ornamental stones, including marbles of many varieties, and the beautiful blue mineral, sodalite, which occurs and is worked in eastern Ontario.

The region of the *Interior Continental Plain* borders the Laurentian Plateau on the west. It includes portions of the provinces of Manitoba and Saskatchewan, nearly the whole of Alberta, part of British Columbia, and extends northwestward through the Northwest Territories towards the Arctic Ocean. Along the international boundary this geological province has a width of approximately 750 miles and, with converging boundaries, it extends northwards for more than 1,100 miles. Its area is approximately 500,000 square miles.

Like the St. Lawrence Lowlands, the region lacks metalliferous wealth, but, on the other hand, is very rich in coal, it having been estimated that within the region there is at least 500,000,000,000 tons of mineable lignite. The lignite seams occur in various districts over the southern part of Saskatchewan and in many areas over nearly the whole of Alberta. In all, the areas containing mineable coal have been estimated to extend over 24,000 square miles, but coal seams doubtless underlie a total area much larger than this, though perhaps too deeply buried to be profitably mined. In 1910 approximately 900,000 tons of coal, all lignite, were produced from the region. The rate of annual production will undoubtedly show very marked increases for some time to come, concurrent with the rapid settlement of the territory now taking place.

Gypsum and natural gas are the only two products besides coal and structural materials that now contribute to the annual yield of the region. Deposits of salt occur and have been worked from time to time. Indications of the existence of petroleum are widespread over the western part of the region, and in the north, tar impregnated sands outcrop along the rivers for miles at a time.

The gypsum-producing area is situated in Manitoba, and in

1910 the output was valued at \$195,000. Natural gas to the value of about \$75,000 was produced in 1910, but the production is being rapidly increased and as yet is practically confined to one small district in southern Alberta. The present production in no way indicates the capacity of the region in general, for large reservoirs of natural gas undoubtedly exist at many places throughout the whole length of Alberta.

Deposits suitable for the production of brick, tile, cement, etc., occur at many points and, as a result of the rapid growth of population, are becoming of increasing importance.

The *Cordilleran Region* bounds the Interior Continental Plain on the west and extends to the Pacific. The region has an average width of about 400 miles and stretches from the international boundary northwards for 1,500 miles to the Arctic Ocean. The region includes nearly the whole of British Columbia, all of Yukon Territory and part of the Northwest Territories; its area is approximately 650,000 square miles.

The Cordilleran region furnishes two-fifths of the total tonnage of coal annually mined in Canada; almost all the gold; practically all the lead and nearly three-fifths of the copper. Like its great rival, the Laurentian Plateau, the Cordilleran region is exceedingly rich in metalliferous deposits, but, unlike the eastern geological province, it also possesses vast stores of coal. As in the case of the Laurentian Plateau, the western geological province is essentially an undeveloped, unprospected region. As yet only over a very limited area in the extreme south, and to a lesser degree along the Pacific coast and the eastern border of the region, has prospecting advanced beyond the initial stages. Though much of the territory is still virtually unknown, the broader geological features have been determined and sufficient knowledge has been gained to firmly establish and warrant the belief that the region must be extremely rich in mineral wealth. Even at present, when traveling facilities, and therefore prospecting, are limited within relatively narrow limits, not a year passes without the discovery of deposits or mineral districts of importance.

The annual production of coal furnishes, in value, nearly one-half of the mineral production of the region, and in 1910 amounted to nearly \$16,000,000. Of this amount less than one-quarter was furnished by the coal fields of Vancouver Island. Nearly the whole

of the remainder came from coal fields situated in the east, in the Rockies or the foothills. Coal basins have been found at intervals from the international boundary northward along the range of the Rockies for a distance of 675 miles. The coal of these basins is bituminous in quality except in one limited field, where it is anthracitic. Many of these eastern coal basins are of large size and contain a number of thick seams. In one field the width of the outcropping coal is measured in terms of hundreds of feet. Basins containing lignite, and in one large district anthracite, occur throughout the length of the central part of the Cordilleran region. As already mentioned, coal basins occur on Vancouver Island; coal also occurs on the Queen Charlotte Islands. In all it has been estimated that the Cordilleran region contains 50,000,000,000 tons of mineable coal (mainly bituminous), but even these figures are probably much too small, for each year sees the discovery of a new field or the further extension of an old one.

The Cordilleran region has long been, and probably always will continue to be, the great gold-producing area of Canada. Much of the gold has come from placer deposits and, in all, the region has produced in the neighborhood of \$220,000,000 in gold. Since the discovery of the first placer fields between 1855 and 1857, there has been a long series of discoveries of auriferous gravels, the most important of recent years being that of the Klondike in the Yukon Territory. This northern field was discovered or announced in 1896 and in the following years took place a rush of gold seekers from all parts of the world. In 1900 the Klondike produced its maximum yield, amounting to \$22,275,000. Of late years the total production of this and other relatively minor fields in the Yukon, has annually amounted to about \$4,500,000, while the yield of the British Columbian placers has been somewhat less than \$500,000.

The present annual gold yield from placer fields is almost equaled by the gold produced by lode mining. A considerable part of this is the product of free milling ores chiefly from one field in the neighborhood of Nelson, B. C. But about three-quarters of the total is from mines producing ores containing copper and some silver as well as gold. The mining of such ores commenced only as late as 1893, but since that date gold to the value of \$70,000,000 and copper of about the same total value have been produced. Of this large total, a very large proportion is the product of a single

group of mines at Rossland in southern British Columbia. A second great copper-gold producing district is that of the Boundary district, centering about Phoenix, which in 1910 produced over 1,660,000 tons of ore containing gold to the value of above \$1,500,000 and copper worth \$3,800,000. Another large copper-producing district is situated on Howe Sound on the Pacific coast. In 1911, from one mine in this field, more than \$1,000,000 of copper besides considerable silver was produced.

Numerous other properties producing chiefly copper and gold, or copper and silver, occur in the better known portions of the region in southern British Columbia, along the Pacific coast, in the northern portion of British Columbia and in Yukon Territory. Not a year passes but new discoveries of importance are made.

An important element in the production of the Cordilleran region is the silver lead ores of a very large area, in southeastern British Columbia, that stretches eastward for many miles from the Arrow Lakes. One district, the Slocan district, produces annually above 6,000,000 pounds of lead and from 700,000 to 900,000 ounces of silver. Another district, the Fort Steele district, produces over 23,000,000 pounds of lead and nearly 600,000 ounces of silver. Some of the deposits in this general area are rich in zinc ores and a considerable, though not very large, production of zinc is furnished by the various districts. Practically all the lead produced in Canada comes from this Cordilleran area. The annual production has ranged during the last few years from above 60,000,000 pounds to less than 20,000,000 pounds, and the total production since 1893 amounts to above 650,000,000 pounds.

In the silver-lead districts, especially in the territory about Kootenay Lake, are many deposits rich in silver with minor amounts of copper, etc. Deposits of this general class also occur in northern British Columbia and Yukon Territory.

Iron ore deposits of value occur in the region and have been mined to a limited extent. Ores of mercury have also been mined. Platinum occurs in some of the placer deposits and a small amount is annually produced. Tin deposits have been reported. The region is undoubtedly rich in building and ornamental stone and the necessary material for the production of clay products and cement.

The *Arctic Archipelago* is the only one of all the major geologi-

cal provinces of Canada that at present does not contribute to the annual mineral production. It embraces a very large region believed to be geologically not unlike the Interior Continental Plain. It is known to contain deposits of coal and presumably is lacking in metalliferous deposits.

In conclusion, it may again be pointed out and as the above brief review indicates, that the mineral industry of Canada as a whole is still in an initial stage. Only in the comparatively limited area extending eastward from the St. Lawrence valley is the annual production in any way commensurate with the known mineral resources of the country. And even in this eastern region, the discoveries of recent years have indicated the existence of previously unsuspected classes of mineral deposits. Over nearly the whole of the vast area of Canada the mineral resources at present being developed are confined to very limited areas bordering the main routes of travel. Even within these circumscribed areas it is indisputably known that great stores of mineral wealth still lie untouched or undiscovered.

MINING LEGISLATION IN CANADA

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Many of the disputes between the United States and Canada concerned fishing rights, and the fisheries of Canada are certainly valuable. Few, however, realize that the mines of the Dominion are already entitled to credit for a production exceeding that of the fisheries and lumber industry combined.

For some years past, those interested in the development of the increasingly important mining industry of Canada have urged the adoption by the Dominion Parliament of a federal mining law, which would have the force and stability of statutory enactment. At present, placer mining in the Yukon Territory is governed by the Dominion statute known as the Yukon placer-mining act. All other mining under federal jurisdiction is governed by orders in council and ministerial regulations.

In the earlier stages of development, it is perhaps inevitable that these important matters should be so dealt with; but it is now felt that the time has come when mining rights in the extensive regions under federal control should be put on a permanent basis, and that any changes required from time to time should be made only after full and open discussion in Parliament.

A short sketch will suffice to indicate how vast and varied the interests affected really are.

When the Dominion of Canada was constituted by the imperial statute known as the British North America act of 1867, which came into force by proclamation on July 1st of that year, it comprised only the Provinces of Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick; but provision was made for the subsequent inclusion of Newfoundland, Prince Edward Island, British Columbia, Rupert's Land and the Northwest Territories. Subsequently Rupert's Land and the Northwest Territories were acquired, the Crown Colonies of British Columbia and Prince Edward Island were admitted, and all the other British territories and possessions in North America,

with the islands adjacent thereto, except Newfoundland and its dependencies, were annexed to Canada by Great Britain.

Canada, consequently, now comprises the whole of the northern half of North America, except Alaska, Newfoundland and that portion of Labrador which constitutes a dependency of Newfoundland. All lands, mines, minerals and royalties belonging at the time of the union to the several provinces of Canada (Ontario and Quebec), Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, are declared to belong to that one of the said provinces of Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, in which the same are situated or have their legal origin—subject, however, to any trusts existing in respect thereof or any interest therein other than that of the province.

Each of the provinces named has exclusive jurisdiction to make laws for the management and sale of its public lands and of the timber and wood thereon, and also as to property and civil rights in the province.

When discussing the extent of this jurisdiction, Mr. Justice Riddell, in *Florence v. Cobalt*, said:

"This is a matter of property and civil rights, by the B. N. A. act this is wholly within the jurisdiction of the legislature of the province; in matters within their jurisdiction, the legislatures have the same powers as Parliament, and the power . . . of Parliament is so transcendent and absolute, that it can not be confined, either for causes or persons within any bounds. . . . It has sovereign and uncontrollable authority in the making, confirming, enlarging, restraining, abrogating, repealing, reviving, and expounding of laws concerning matters of all possible determinations. (Blackstone, Commentaries I, p. 160.) . . . 'Within the jurisdiction given the legislature of the province, no power can interfere with the legislature, except of course the Dominion authorities, which interference may occasion disallowance. There is no need of speaking of the paramount power of the imperial Parliament.'"

"In short, the legislature within its jurisdiction can do everything that is not naturally impossible, and is restrained by no rule, human or divine": and later in his judgment the learned judge said, "We have no such restriction upon the power of the legislature as is found in some of the States."

With some exceptions, not necessary to be here specified, the same rules were made applicable to Prince Edward Island and

British Columbia. But very different conditions and regulations obtain in the remaining parts of Canada.

Under the sanction of an imperial statute, the Dominion of Canada obtained a surrender of the lands and territories granted by Charles II in 1670 to the Governor and Company of Adventurers trading into Hudson's Bay, known as the Hudson's Bay Company; and Rupert's Land and the Northwest Territories were consequently admitted into the Dominion as of July 15, 1870.

When the Provinces of Manitoba, Saskatchewan and Alberta were formed, the lands, mines and minerals, with slight exceptions, were not transferred to the provinces, but remained the property of the Dominion of Canada and subject to federal jurisdiction and control.

The proposed federal mining law must deal with the mines and minerals of these three provinces, of all the territories, including the Yukon Territory, and of certain areas of the older provinces, principally the Indian lands and railway belts of British Columbia. It must, therefore, deal with placer-mining, coal, natural gas, oil, petroleum, gold, silver, copper and the other minerals. The whole field must be covered and every problem of mining law solved.

The framing of this general law is regarded by mining men as supremely important, not only on account of the great interests actually and potentially involved, but also because it is looked upon as the first step towards the unification of the mining laws of Canada. The vital importance of such completeness, wisdom and practical convenience being embodied in the federal statute as will recommend it to the several provinces for voluntary adoption is therefore self-evident.

While the Dominion has no jurisdiction over the mining laws of the provinces which own mining lands, it is hoped that the provisions of the federal law, by reason of their excellence and efficiency, will gradually be adopted by the various provinces.

In this connection a striking instance of concerted action by independent jurisdictions may be mentioned. Some years ago an exceedingly well-drawn act, which had become law in Great Britain, dealing with bills of exchange and promissory notes, was passed by the Dominion Parliament, which in Canada has jurisdiction over the subject matter, and by a majority of the state legislatures of the United States, so that it may now be said that this statute governs the greater part of the English-speaking world.

There is no reason why advantages similar to those which have been thus secured by the mercantile communities of Great Britain, the United States and Canada should not be obtained by the mining world.

At the present time, a discussion of the fundamental principles upon which such a mining law as is proposed should be based, and of the merits and deficiencies of such codes as that of Mexico, would be interesting and instructive, as bringing together, in useful form, the results of close observation and varied experience with the mining laws of the world.

There is no danger that any form of the so-called "apex law" will be again introduced into Canada. That law was copied under the influence of miners from the Pacific states, by British Columbia, but was finally abolished April 23, 1892, since which date the rights of the holder of a mineral claim are confined, in British Columbia, as in all other parts of Canada, to the ground bounded by vertical planes drawn through its surface boundary lines. The vested rights of claim-owners who had located their claims under former acts were protected; and the "apex law" in British Columbia, as elsewhere, has given rise to costly litigation, which seems inherent in the system of extra-lateral rights.

There are, however, other important questions to be discussed, such as how adequately to protect the prospector without at the same time introducing the danger of "blanketing;" the function of discovery in the acquisition of mining title; the most useful forms of working conditions, and the most efficient methods of enforcing such regulations. Last, but not least, the ever-present and ever-troublesome questions of taxation and royalties must be considered.

In dealing with these problems, Canada has, fortunately, the opportunity of taking full advantage of the results of mining codes in other countries and of her own unique experience of various systems of law.

The common law of England was introduced into the greater part of Canada. Space will not permit even a bald outline of the queenly features of My Lady of the Common Law. Her virtues have recently been eloquently commended by one of her most distinguished Knights, Sir Frederick Pollock, in his most recent publications.

Suffice it now to say that she has ever been the faithful friend

of liberty and justice, which, as Alexander Hamilton well said, is the end of government.

One must, however, lament that on this continent the gladsome light of her jurisprudence is often darkened by crude technicalities and by multiplying statutes of multitudinous legislatures, amended until the confusion of ill-considered legislation is often rendered more confounded.

That the reference to the common law is not merely a matter of antiquarian curiosity, but of present practical importance to the mining men of Canada, is sufficiently indicated by the fact that the rules laid down in the sixteenth century by the Justices of Queen Elizabeth, in the mines case, were successfully invoked in the nineteenth century, before their lordships of the Judicial Committee of Queen Victoria's Privy Council, in the precious metals case from British Columbia; and in the twentieth century before the judges of Queen Victoria's successor, Edward the Peace Maker, in the ophir case from Ontario.

In giving judgments in the latter of these cases, Sir John Boyd, Chancellor of Ontario, as reported in *Ontario Mining Company v. Seybold*, 31 Ontario Reports (1899), at page 399, used the following language:

"According to the law of England and of Canada, gold and silver mines, until they have been aptly severed from the title of the Crown are not regarded as '*partes soli*' or as incidents of the land in which they are found. The right of the Crown to waste lands in the colonies and the baser metals therein contained, is declared to be distinct from the title which the Crown has to the precious metals, which rests upon royal prerogative. Lord Watson has said in *Attorney-General of British Columbia v. Attorney-General of Canada* (1889), 14 App. Cas., at pp. 302, 303, these prerogative revenues differ in legal quality from the ordinary territorial rights of the Crown. These prerogative rights, however, were vested in Canada prior to the Confederation by the transaction relating to the civil list which took place between the Province and Her Majesty—the outcome of which is found in 9 Vict. ch. 114, a Canadian statute, which being reserved for the royal assent, received that sanction in June, 1846. The hereditary revenues of the Crown, territorial and others then at the disposal of the Crown, arising in the United Province of Canada were thereby surrendered in consideration of provisions being made

for defraying the expenses of the civil list. So that while the Crown continued to hold the legal title, the beneficial interest in them as royal mines and minerals, producing, or capable of producing revenue, passed to Canada. And being so held for the beneficial use of Canada they passed by section 109 of the British North America act to Ontario by force of site." On appeal to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, this judgment was affirmed.

The mining laws of Canada have been influenced, not only by the common law of England, but also both directly and indirectly, through the United States, by the customary rights of the bounders of Cornwall and Devon, by the sturdily asserted rights of the free miners of the Forest of Dean, and the Hundred of St. Briavel in Gloucester, and by the curious local customs according to which the lead mines of Derbyshire have been worked from time immemorial. These customs, as declared by the Imperial Parliament, were sanctioned by legislation; and the curious will find an interesting discussion of them in the judgments of the House of Lords in *Wake v. Hall*, 8 Appeal Cases, 195.

The analogy of one feature of the mining law of Cornwall has recently been followed to a considerable extent in Ontario, with very beneficial results, by the appointment of a judicial officer, known as the Mining Commissioner, who is clothed with very extensive authority and jurisdiction to determine mining disputes.

The Stannary Court exercised jurisdiction over the tanners in Cornwall, who forced recognition of their immemorial rights from King John. The jurisdiction of the Stannary Court extended to all suits, with certain exceptions where land, life or limb was involved, between miners, even though the cause of action did not arise from the working of the mines within the stannaries; and also to actions between miners and strangers, but in such cases, only to actions arising out of mining within the stanneries, unless the stranger attorned to the jurisdiction. The exceptions to the jurisdiction of the Stannaries Court, above referred to, were expressed in the famous Charter 33 Edward the First, granted to the miners in the words, "*exceptis placitis terrae et vitae et membrorum.*"

The leading rules of the mining law of the Province of Quebec were mainly derived from the French law, which in turn, was founded on the Roman. The civil law, though greatly modified, is still in force in the Province of Quebec. The rules of the later Roman law

were in force in Gaul at the time of the disruption of the Roman Empire, and were retained by the Gauls, dominating, not by reason of imperial power, but by the imperial power of reason.

These rules were brought by the French to the peaceful banks of the St. Lawrence, which were not disturbed by the thunders of L'Assemblée Nationale, or by its law of 1791, which declared, "*Les mines sont à la disposition de la nation.*"

Many mining men came to British Columbia from California, where parts of Spanish mining laws were still in force; and, beyond question, the laws of Spain have been indirectly a factor in moulding the mining laws of Canada.

In a very able and useful address before the Society of Arts in London, England, Dr. James Douglas has discussed the effect of the land and mining laws of the United States upon its marvelous development. One may be allowed to express the hope that Dr. Douglas will extend his exposition across the boundary line, so that his native country may, in connection with the revision, consolidation and codification of its mining laws, obtain the benefit of his penetrating insight, keen analysis and ripe experience.

In Canada there are immense deposits of economic minerals to reward the explorer, the miner and the investor. If Canadians choose, in perfecting their mining laws, they have at their disposal a marvelous wealth of experience, rich with the spoils of time and with the reasoned conclusions of the great systems of jurisprudence which have contributed most to civilization and to human progress.

The hope may be expressed that the legislators of this continent will constantly bear in mind the words of one of the greatest living authorities on jurisprudence, from whom I have already quoted, Sir F. Pollock, who states as the criteria of just laws in a civilized community: "Generality, equality and certainty," these three, but from the standpoint of the mining industry, the greatest of these is surely "certainty."

CANADIAN BANKING

BY H. M. P. ECKARDT,

Author of "A Rational Banking System" and "Manual of Canadian Banking."

It was remarked by an American writer a few years ago, when the tide of immigration had begun to run strongly towards the prairie provinces, that the capacity of the Canadian banking system would be severely tested by the abnormal influx of population. Railway construction was active; and many of the newcomers, especially the farmers from the western states, were large-scale producers. So there has been continuous need of extensive banking facilities. The following table shows the growth in ten years of the four western provinces:

Provinces	Population		Increase Per cent
	1911	1901	
Alberta.....	374,663	73,022	413
British Columbia.....	392,480	178,657	120
Manitoba.....	455,614	255,211	79
Saskatchewan.....	492,432	91,279	439
Total.....	1,715,189	598,169	187

Western Canada's increase of population in the decade was 1,117,020, which figure represented about 61 per cent of the increase shown by all Canada.

It will be interesting now to see whether the banking development in the western half of the Dominion has kept pace with the growth of population. The banking offices in the four provinces in 1911 and 1901, respectively, were:

Provinces	Banking Offices		Increase Per cent
	1911	1901	
British Columbia.....	211	46	359
Manitoba.....	192	52	269
Alberta.....	220	30 ¹	1,633 ¹
Saskatchewan.....	320		
Total.....	943	128	637

¹ In 1901 Alberta and Saskatchewan were both comprised in the Northwest Territories.

This table shows that so far as number of banking offices is concerned, the increase has been relatively greater than the increase of population. While the population has scarcely trebled, the number of bank offices has increased six-fold.

In order that the reader may grasp the full significance of the details which follow, it is advisable to describe the nature of the banking offices here referred to and the services they perform for the public. It will be remembered that when the western states were passing through the stage in which the western Canadian provinces now are, their financial needs were looked after by a large number of private bankers and small banks. Many of the small banks were run as side lines by enterprising real estate and loan agents. Rates of interest were very high, $1\frac{1}{2}$ and 2 per cent a month being the regular charge in most small places. In numberless cases these so-called private bankers amassed wealth through acquiring on their own terms the land of unfortunate debtors who were crushed by the usurious rates of interest. These conditions, be it remembered, were in evidence in many of the small places. In the larger towns there was more competition, the banks possessed a greater capacity for lending and the borrowers had a better chance. But rates were high there also, as much of the paper had to be rediscounted in the East at seven per cent or thereabouts.

The banking offices established in western Canada are not at all of this description. Twenty-one banks operate the 900 odd branches established in the western provinces at the end of 1911. Roundly one-third of the whole number are accounted for by two institutions—the Union Bank of Canada and the Canadian Bank of Commerce. At the end of 1911 the Union had 160 branches in western Canada and the Commerce had 147. Since then both have established a considerable number of new branches, and the Commerce acquired the fifteen western branches of the Eastern Townships Bank when it absorbed that institution on March 1, 1912. According to the government bank statement, as of October 31, 1912, the total resources of the Commerce were \$242,390,445, and the resources of the Union were \$69,782,860.

Following these two leaders are the Merchants Bank of Canada, assets \$85,180,283, and seventy-seven western branches as at the end of 1911; the Bank of Hamilton, assets \$48,445,752, and seventy-seven western branches; the Northern Crown Bank, assets \$21,914,693, and

seventy-six western branches; the Royal Bank of Canada, assets \$174,593,141, and sixty-three western branches; the Imperial Bank of Canada, assets \$79,215,380, and fifty-six western branches; the Bank of Montreal, assets \$237,182,345, and fifty western branches; the Bank of British North America, assets \$65,762,227, and fifty western branches; the Bank of Toronto, assets \$58,731,059, and thirty-one western branches; the Dominion Bank, assets \$76,098,111, and twenty-five western branches; the Bank of Ottawa, assets \$51,388,311, and nineteen western branches; the Standard Bank of Canada, assets \$40,583,318, and fifteen western branches.

These thirteen banks accounted for 846 of the western branches; the remaining ninety-seven were established by ten other banks, two of which have since been absorbed. By its absorption of the Traders Bank of Canada on September 1, 1912, the Royal Bank of Canada acquired the twenty-three western branches of the Traders.

A number of the banks which are assisting to develop the western provinces in the financial way, and which are not included in the above list, are large and powerful concerns. Thus the Bank of Nova Scotia has assets of \$67,279,856; the Molsons Bank, \$52,221,410; the Quebec Bank, \$12,607,646; the Banque d' Hochelaga, \$30,610,804; the Home Bank of Canada, \$12,899,410. But they each had less than ten branches in the West at the end of 1911. It is to be remembered, too, that practically all of the above-named banks have extensive branch systems in the East as well. Not a few of them have more branches in the East than in the West. The total of bank branches in eastern Canada as yet exceeds the branches in western Canada by about seven hundred. Another point to be carefully noted is that the chief executive office and the control lies in the East in all cases except two. The Union Bank of Canada and the Northern Crown are the only two banks with head offices in the West. The first-named of these institutions was organized and had its head office in the City of Quebec; its stock is held chiefly in the East. But the western business of the bank ultimately assumed such vast proportions as to cause the removal of the head office to Winnipeg a little over a year ago. As the western business of the other eastern banks developed to large proportions, they appointed western superintendents, western inspectors, western supervisors and other executive officers to be domiciled at the western centers.

The foregoing figures give a clear idea as to the kind of banking

offices that have been established in communities of new settlers and in the rapidly growing cities and towns of the West. Before describing the services which the bank branches perform for the public, it will be well to show in what kind of places the bank branches are located. It has often been observed that even under the poorest of banking systems the large towns and cities will be given fairly good banking facilities. But it is only under the soundest and best systems that the small towns and villages get adequate facilities at fair and reasonable cost. Now let us see in what manner the banking offices in western Canada are distributed. A series of tables will set out the particulars so as to be most easily understood:

BANK OFFICES IN THE CITIES

Province	No. of Cities	Aggregate Population	Bank Offices	Inhabitants per Bank
Alberta.....	6	90,252	61	1,480
British Columbia.....	25	203,684	142	1,434
Manitoba.....	4	163,249	65	2,511
Saskatchewan.....	4	62,294	42	1,483
West Canada.....	39	519,479	310	1,676

It will be noted that roughly one-third of the bank offices in western Canada are in the cities. In this class there is an average of 1,676 inhabitants per bank office. In my book "A Rational Banking System," thirty-four of the principal cities in the United States were taken as regards their bank offices and population as in 1908; and the average number of inhabitants per bank office for

BANK OFFICES IN INCORPORATED TOWNS

Province	No. of Towns	Aggregate Population	Bank Offices	Inhabitants per Bank
Alberta.....	27	25,881	55	471
British Columbia ²				
Manitoba.....	24	26,926	47	573
Saskatchewan.....	50	37,504	97	387
West Canada.....	101	90,311	199	454

² British Columbia's population according to census report is all contained in the cities and large electoral districts.

the thirty-four cities was 9,700. Des Moines, with a bank office to every three thousand inhabitants, had the lowest average; and the figures ranged from that up to the average of 27,400 in the case of New York.

Taking the towns next, the table on page 161 shows results.

Relatively to population, the 101 towns in western Canada, have about four times as many bank offices as the cities. The average town is a place with about nine hundred inhabitants.

Finally, we arrive at the incorporated villages, which in western Canada are usually very small places.

BANK OFFICES IN INCORPORATED VILLAGES

Province	No. of Villages	Aggregate Population	Bank Offices	Inhabitants per Bank
Alberta.....	82	26,779	70	383
British Columbia ¹				
Manitoba.....	21	10,190	20	509
Saskatchewan.....	195	31,596	151	209
West Canada.....	298	68,565	241	284

Relatively to population the villages again have more banking offices than the towns. Now, bearing in mind the high standing of each individual bank office and the vast extent of its potential resources (in every case the signatures of the duly accredited officers at the branch, on drafts and other such documents, bind the bank), take particular note of the following.

The average incorporated town in western Canada has about nine hundred inhabitants and two banks; the average incorporated village has 230 inhabitants, and, we might say, one bank—for there is an average of 284 people to each banking office.

That certainly is a remarkable showing. On the average basis practically every one of the towns with 900 population has effective competition in the form of two branch offices of great and powerful banks; and four out of every five villages of 284 souls, have a branch office of a big bank. When these small places in Alberta and Saskatchewan are taken according to actual facts, instead of on the average basis, the showing is even more impressive. Here is a list

¹See foot note to table on towns.

of villages in each of which two great banks were competing for the business of the villagers and of the farmers in the surrounding district at the end of 1911. The names of the villages will, of course, possess no particular meaning or significance for American readers; the population in each case is the significant thing:

VILLAGES IN ALBERTA AND SASKATCHEWAN WITH MORE THAN ONE BANK

Village	Population	Banks
<i>Alberta:</i>		
Alix.....	267	Union, Quebec.
Athabasca.....	227	Imperial, Royal.
Bassano.....	540	Commerce, Union.
Brooks.....	486	Merchants, Union.
Carmangay.....	286	Commerce, Hamilton.
Carstaris.....	270	Merchants, Union.
Castor.....	1,659	Merchants, Traders.
Granum.....	250	Commerce, Hamilton.
Gleichen.....	583	Commerce, Traders.
Lloydminster.....	222	Commerce, Northern Crown.
Munson.....	92	Merchants, Traders.
Staveley.....	245	Commerce, Hamilton.
Strathmore.....	531	Commerce, Union.
<i>Saskatchewan:</i>		
Bounty.....	59	Commerce, Union.
Dundwin.....	239	Hamilton, Northern Crown
Govan.....	390	Quebec, Northern Crown.
Grenfel.....	709	Dominion, Hamilton.
Gull Lake.....	606	Merchants, Union.
Halbrite.....	239	Standard, Weyburn.
Herbert.....	559	Commerce, Union.
Kerrobart.....	320	Commerce, Union.
Luseland.....	104	Royal, Union.
McTaggart.....	134	Standard, Weyburn.
Midale.....	156	Standard, Weyburn.
Radville.....	233	Commerce, Weyburn.
Rosetown.....	317	Royal, Union.
Wynard.....	515	British, Imperial.
Zealandia.....	264	Royal, Union.

To complete the picture I am adding a list of the Alberta and Saskatchewan villages with population less than 100, each one having a branch of a big bank. (See page 164.)

It will be noted that when the banking offices established in all the cities, towns, and incorporated villages, are taken, they do not account for the whole number of bank branches actually in operation in the four provinces. The total number of offices in the cities,

BANKING POINTS IN ALBERTA AND SASKATCHEWAN WITH POPULATION LESS THAN 100, AND NOT INCLUDED IN THE FOREGOING TABLE

Village	Population	Bank, with Assets of
<i>Alberta:</i>		
Barons	75	Union.....\$69,000,000
Islay.....	90	Merchants..... 85,000,000
N. Norway.....	61	Merchants..... 85,000,000
Penhold.....	94	Standard..... 40,000,000
<i>Saskatchewan:</i>		
Adanac.....	73	Union..... 69,000,000
Belle Plain.....	82	Hamilton..... 48,000,000
Churchbridge.....	90	Toronto..... 58,000,000
Colgate.....	95	Weyburn..... 1,000,000
Duval.....	81	Northern Crown... 21,000,000
Girvin.....	39	British..... 65,000,000
Goodwater.....	75	Standard..... 40,000,000
Gr. Coulee.....	82	Hamilton..... 48,000,000
Ituna.....	95	British..... 65,000,000
Jansen.....	63	Union..... 69,000,000
Kinley.....	51	Northern Crown... 21,000,000
Lampman.....	96	British..... 65,000,000
Laura.....	82	Northern Crown... 21,000,000
Maidstone.....	97	Standard..... 40,000,000
Marquis.....	88	Hamilton..... 48,000,000
Netherhill.....	80	Union..... 69,000,000
Osage.....	72	Hamilton..... 48,000,000
Pelly.....	82	Toronto..... 58,000,000
Punnichy.....	73	British..... 65,000,000
Stornoway.....	52	Northern Crown... 21,000,000
Summerberry.....	79	Toronto..... 58,000,000
Tessier.....	65	Union..... 69,000,000
Tompkins.....	90	Union..... 69,000,000
Venn.....	58	Northern Crown... 21,000,000
Viscount.....	72	Northern Crown... 21,000,000
Webb.....	75	Union..... 69,000,000

towns, and villages is 750; while the total number in the western provinces is 943. The difference, 193, represents the bank branches in small places which were not incorporated even as villages at the end of 1911. Of these offices Alberta has 34; British Columbia, 69; Manitoba, 60; Saskatchewan, 30.

Where, in all the world, can a similar spectacle be found? Canada has no central bank, possessing a monopoly of note issue and other exclusive privileges, and which is supposed to have a wonderful ability to prevent panics and equalize the interest rate. Nevertheless the great mass of the Canadian people outside the cities and large

towns have banking facilities which I think are superior to those possessed by the people of any European country.

In the current number of *Banking Reform* the editor intimates that the high interest rates in the rural districts of the United States represent one of the minor causes of the movement of American farmers to Canada. He says, "Even in the heart of the Canadian wilderness, far removed from a railroad, the homesteader need not pay more than eight per cent for borrowed capital, whereas in sparsely settled parts of the United States he must often pay from 12 to 15 per cent. The difference in interest is the difference between a scientific banking system and a system which is the laughing stock of the civilized world." And he concludes, "We do not want a branch banking system, but we can procure its advantages, including more nearly uniform interest rates, by revising our banking laws."

It seems unlikely that the residents of the small towns and villages of the United States will be placed on anything like an equality with the residents of similar places in Canada until sound, strong banks are at liberty to establish branches where they will. Probably the most scientific and effective parts of the Canadian bank's equipment are its branch machinery and its issue power.

We have now learned something about the question of how large a settlement in western Canada must be before it can expect to have a chartered bank branch, also something about the size and power of the banks which go into these settlements. It is in order next to discuss the nature of the support which is given to the small community by the branch bank and to ascertain what it is that enables these great banks to place their facilities and services directly at the disposal of such humble communities.

It will be understood that within a village of less than 100 population the bank will not find much business to transact. There would be perhaps less than thirty families. Of course, everybody expects that "the town will grow." The bank shares in this expectation; and, besides, the head office has probably estimated that for the first year or two after the establishment of the branch, it will be operated at a loss. However, no bank branch would be established in a very small village unless the village was surrounded by a good farming country. The bank expects to derive a large part of its business from the farmers—that is the principal reason why it goes into a village of less than 100 souls.

As it is a new country, in which land values are rising and development work much in evidence on all sides, fixed or permanent deposits are not plentiful. There is a considerable amount of transient money. The new settlers bring in cash which lies for a little while; but that is soon expended in equipping the farm. The bank also does some business in exchange—cashing items on other places and transferring funds elsewhere. But its principal functions are to provide currency for the transaction of business and to lend to all local parties worthy of credit. The retail tradesman, as soon as he satisfies the bank that he is an honest, capable man, with perhaps a little capital of his own, can discount from day to day the notes given him by good farmers in settlement of their accounts. He can also on occasions procure direct loans from the bank on giving a good endorser or other suitable security.

This helps him immensely and enables him to deal with the wholesalers on better terms. Everybody in the village who can give the requisite security, down to the blacksmith or tinsmith, can borrow for business purposes.

While the branch banks cannot make long-term loans, on mortgages or otherwise, to the farmer, they can and do enable him to anticipate the receipt of proceeds of his crop. A responsible man can begin to borrow as soon as his seed is in the ground. The bank will advance funds for the purchase of horses, implements, clothing and provisions, for wages, threshing expenses and other expenses incidental to the work of the farm—one condition thereof being that the aggregate of loans to an individual farmer must not exceed the amount which he can repay in full on disposing of his crops in the fall or winter. If a good borrower is hailed out or meets with some other misfortune which prevents him paying off his loans in full, the bank is obliged to wait for its money until he takes off his next crop. The general rate in the new districts is eight per cent. But the low rate of interest which the editor of *Banking Reform* referred to in his comparison of conditions in the United States and Canada is not the only good thing conferred on the community by the branch bank.

It is a matter of common knowledge that in the United States where a brand new settlement is dependent on local note-shavers or so-called banks, they have various devices, apart from 12 to 15 per cent money, for appropriating the hard-earned profits of the settlers. By means of fees for documents, commissions on loans, etc., they

manage to supplement their earnings to a considerable extent. And, as mentioned in an earlier paragraph, there are numberless cases wherein a private lender of this type would make an advance to a farmer or another with the ulterior object of dispossessing him of his property.

Against tactics of that kind the borrowers from the branch bank in the tiny Canadian village are absolutely safe. In the first place the rate of interest they have to pay, eight per cent, gives them a chance to make good. Next the manager of the branch bank is forbidden to engage in any outside business or activity. He must give his whole attention to the bank's business. For any assignments or pledges executed by the borrower on the bank's forms, no charge is made; and there are no fees, commissions or extras except the charges on remitted checks, drafts, etc., which vary from one-tenth to one-fourth of one per cent.

When misfortune places one of its borrowers in the hands of the branch bank, its rules and traditions forbid its officers from taking undue advantage. All they are allowed to do is to recover the funds actually advanced by the bank. If the borrower has a good chance to rehabilitate himself in a reasonable time, the bank will not press him. Under certain circumstances, if he can give the necessary security, it may even lend him an additional sum. But if his condition is hopeless, the bank realizes on its security, and if possible reimburses itself for the loan, interest and expenses of realization. Any surplus, if unattached, goes to the borrower.

Finally we arrive at the question: To what characteristics of the Canadian banking system are the small agricultural communities indebted for the splendid facilities they enjoy? It is not difficult to find the answer. Unrestricted liberty in the matter of establishing branch offices is unquestionably the most important factor; the second is the fact that the power of note issue is not centralized in the government or in a state bank. It is only through the operation of the branch system that the small communities can obtain the banking facilities to which they are entitled. Imagine the reception that would be accorded by Comptroller Murray to an application for a national bank charter coming from a village with but eighty inhabitants. He would say "No! Certainly not. Your village could not support a bank." And he would be quite right; for a village of that size, even if located in the midst of a good agricultural district, could

not give enough business to support an independent bank with full complement of directors and officers. The only chance would lie in the operation of a "bank" as a side line by the local loan and insurance agent; and we have seen what that means in many cases.

Under the branch system a real banking office can be operated at the minimum expense. Two men—a manager and junior—comprise the whole staff. The office is worked on an economical basis, as a part of a system of perhaps twenty or thirty branches in the province or district. As mentioned already, it may be expected to return a loss for the first year or two; and after that the bank may be satisfied if it returns \$100 or \$200 per year for a series of years while the place is growing to a respectable size. The right of note issue figures conspicuously as a means of economical operation. The notes issued by the branch provide the currency in use in the village and surrounding country. The bank has the use of the funds represented by the circulation which is outstanding. And a further stock of unissued notes, which of course represent no cash investment, suffices for till money. The only actual cash the branch need carry would be \$100 or so in silver coins and a few \$1 and \$2 bills for change (the banks cannot issue notes under \$5 denomination). It need not carry anything as reserve against its liabilities; the manager need not concern himself about them at all. The head office has to look out for the liabilities of all the branches. If the branch needs cash of any description, it merely wires the nearest depot branch and the cash probably arrives next day.

When the sub-committee of the National Monetary Commission visited Canada two or three years ago, Hon. Mr. Vreeland questioned Mr. Daniel R. Wilkie, president of the Imperial Bank of Canada, and recently elected president of the Canadian Bankers' Association, on the matter of the branch offices and the issue power. In reply to a question of Mr. Vreeland's, Mr. Wilkie said, "Without our system of currency, without the inducement of being able to supply the currency required from the banks' own issues, we could not keep the bulk of our branches open. If our currency laws were changed and we were not permitted to issue our own notes, nine-tenths of these branches would be closed. It would not pay us. It is only because we have unlimited till money always available. It is only because we have power to issue our own bills that we are opening branches. That is the crux of the whole matter. It is not only the starting

point of our banks, but without it our banking system could never have developed the country to the condition it is in to-day. It could not be done."

It should be remembered that it is a system of free or plural issues that has worked so beneficently in Canada. If there had been established in the Dominion at a comparatively early day, a central bank or banking association with monopoly of note issue the development of the ordinary banks would most certainly have been checked, their usefulness seriously impaired. The great banks of the Dominion owe their greatness to their extensive systems of branches. We have seen that the right of note issue has enabled them to extend their branch systems. Therefore it is clear that if the issue power had been confined to a central bank, the branch systems of the ordinary banks could not have been developed as they have been and they would have been hopelessly dwarfed, to the great injury of the whole country. Those small villages of 100 and 200 population would never have been given bank branches if the issue power were monopolized by a central bank; and the inhabitants of those villages and of large villages and towns would have been left to the tender mercies of the private bankers and the loan sharks.

Under the Canadian system there are no intermediaries between the issue banks and the humble borrower. The connection is direct and intimate. The bank of issue goes right into the country and lends directly to the small people. Mr. H. V. Meredith, the vice-president and general manager of the Bank of Montreal, told the stockholders of the bank at the annual meeting on December 2, 1912, that the loans of the Bank of Montreal to farmers and small traders amount to many millions of dollars. And the heads of the other great banks—the Commerce, the Royal, the Merchants, Imperial, Dominion, etc., could say the same thing.

The financial system of the country is not complicated by a mass of rediscounts. Borrowers have direct access in all parts of the country to the funds of the banks of issue. Of course, Canada is a new country in process of very rapid development, and the demand for money and credit is enormous. Under those circumstances it is inevitable that interest rates on the whole should be well above the rates prevailing in Europe. The higher rates are necessary, for one thing, to attract capital to the country. I venture to say that if the Canadian banking system had been cut after the

European models, it never would have expanded so easily and smoothly with the great growth of the last decade. The monopolies and special privileges would perhaps have been the indirect cause of one breakdown after another. Because the banks are free and equal, because they have been left in full possession of their natural functions, they have developed rapidly and strongly; and they have earned the respect of the whole world for the manner in which they have financed the country's growth.

CANADA AND HER ART

BY ERIC BROWN,

Director of National Art Gallery, Ottawa, Canada.

The art of a young nation is a changeling in the home. It is a daughter born to parents absorbed in the achievement of material prosperity, who with all the good will in the world cannot understand and know how to educate those qualities which they see developing in their child so strongly and so differently from their own. So it is that her childhood is neglected and her youth misunderstood and not until the compelling power of womanhood animates her does that misunderstanding yield to admiration and disdain to applause.

It might be said with some truth that it is the first scarce conscious realization of maturity that typifies the development of Canadian art to-day and it is bringing with it such problems as how to develop and foster an appreciation of that art in due ratio to the growth of its production and how to encourage the art itself to develop and expand its ideals along national lines. These are great questions, greater perhaps to those within than to those without, for those within can see that it is largely by means of the arts, esthetics and handicrafts that the tremendous material energy of the country must be refined and a right direction given to its surplus wealth.

Take the crafts, textile and other handicrafts. In addition to the industries preserved among the inhabitants of Quebec, the Scotch and Irish peasants of the eastern provinces and the Indian tribes scattered throughout the Dominion, which are now being encouraged with good result by guilds and societies of wise and far-seeing people, there is a ceaseless flood of immigrants pouring into western Canada every year, bringing their industrial traditions with them. A large proportion of them come from Europe and almost invariably they bring with them some native craft which has been a joy and a profit to their ancestors and their village since time immemorial. Here, in the long winters when the farm work is light, there is leisure and incentive to work at the old craft—the skill they inherit—but where are the materials, the markets and often the designs? These we must provide or these arts and crafts will be quickly lost, and here, again, it is the surplus wealth of the country which needs to be

directed into right channels and educated to see more value, satisfaction and beauty in some article, however humble, which is hallowed by the individual creative thought rather than stamped and standardized by the patterned perfection of the machine. It is a great work and as yet the laborers are few.

So it is or has been with the finer arts. The pioneer in the artistic wilderness needs an even greater heart than his brother in the forest. He has to meet an obliquity and disdain more cruel than the obstinacy of inanimate things or the hardships of climate. In Canada he has met them and in a large measure has conquered them, and, as I have said, the situation is that the artistic production is increasing in leaps and bounds in quality and quantity, and the problem is now to encourage and foster it and provide a market for it by instilling into those who, during its infancy, satisfied their desires with foreign pictures, the fact that there is now an art in their midst, different but not inferior, crying for recognition and that they must put aside foreign standards and ideals and judge it and appreciate it as one of their most valuable possessions. I would insist that the art of a country, and especially of a young country, is its most valuable national asset because it is the expression of all that is most elevating, truthful and permanent in the national achievement. No nation can be truly great until it has a great art, and to revert to an earlier simile, the advantage of the parents' study of the child's character is obviously mutual.

With regard to the history of Canadian art, there is not a great deal to record. The great hearts, pioneered in the wilderness, broke the roads and laid the foundations and all honor is due to them.

About the middle of the nineteenth century, G. T. Berthon came from Vienne, France, to paint portraits in Toronto. His father had been one of the most promising pupils of the great David. Berthon's work included portraits of the most eminent Canadians of his day.

Daniel Fowler came from England in 1843. For fourteen years he farmed in Ontario. For the next thirty he painted in water-color under the influence of the great nineteenth century school of British water-color painters.

Otto R. Jacobi, court painter to the Duke of Nassau at Wiesbaden, came to Canada in 1860 and lived and painted there for the rest of his life.

Paul Kane, pioneer in the forest as in his art, traveled thousands of miles by canoe, horse and snowshoe to obtain his pictures and portraits of Indians and their customs.

Wyatt Eaton was the friend and biographer of Millet, Fraser, O'Brien, Kreighoff, Benoni Irwin and many others whose names are household words in the tale of early Canadian art.

From these individuals was formed, in 1867, the first organization of Canadian painters, called the Society of Canadian Artists. This organization was followed by the Ontario Society of Artists, the oldest living organization of artists in the Dominion. It is now flourishing vigorously under the presidency of Mr. Wyly Grier, R.C.A. It is the art body that introduces the young talent to the world of publicity. It has had a varied career, but of late years its annual exhibitions have witnessed a great revival and the foremost artistic talent of Canada is being largely recruited from its ranks.

Then came the Royal Canadian Academy, founded in 1880, on the traditions of the Royal Academy of England, by the then Marquis of Lorne and H. R. H. Princess Louis during the term of their vice-royalty. It includes in its ranks of academicians and associates, all the foremost artists, sculptors, designers and architects in the Dominion. Its president is Mr. William Brymner, and it is good to note that its annual exhibitions, which best reflect the artistic progress of the country, are of an ever-improving quality. It is very inadequately supported by the government, but notwithstanding it has for the past thirty years done a great and good work in encouraging and stimulating the artistic endeavor of the Dominion which it was wisely created to centralize and express.

Up to the present its annual exhibitions have been held in Montreal, Toronto and Ottawa in turn, with an occasional exhibition in other towns, but the time is coming which will demand its presence in the western provinces. Winnipeg has just opened the first Canadian Municipal Art Gallery with a representative exhibition of Canadian art under the auspices of the Royal Canadian Academy. This will assuredly be followed by the other provinces no less progressive nor unmindful of the needs of their growing population.

Then there is the Canadian Art Club, with headquarters in Toronto, a five-year old secession from the Ontario Society of Artists. Its share in the good work is the specialty it is making of reuniting with Canadians in its exhibitions, the work of those men

who in the earlier days were forced to seek recognition in the United States and in Europe. Homer Watson, R.C.A., is its president, and its annual exhibitions hold many interesting pictures, albeit it seems to be somewhat departing from the ideal of an independent secession which was the reason of its birth.

Canada's art museums and art schools are yet in their infancy, at least in numbers. Montreal has its art association, due entirely to private enterprise. It contains an interesting permanent collection, largely the result of bequests; and the best art school in the country, whose advanced classes are under the direction of Mr. William Brymner, P.R.C.A. To mark its progression and prosperity it has recently moved into a new and most palatial home in the finest section in the city.

Toronto has the Art Museum of Toronto, a magnificent site for which was recently bequeathed by the late Dr. Goldwin Smith. The site is in his old home, The Grange. Plans are being prepared for the new building and there is no reason to doubt that Toronto will shortly have an art center worthy of the greatest English-speaking city in the Dominion.

The Ontario College of Art is also in Toronto, and has recently passed through a much-needed reorganization. Under the presidency of Mr. George Reid, R.C.A., it may be expected to do even better work than in the past towards the training of the young idea.

Winnipeg, as I have mentioned, has just opened the first Municipal Art Gallery in Canada—a step the importance of which can hardly be overestimated. It marks that point of development when the esthetic has become a necessity to the progressive thought, and the surplus wealth will thereby be attracted towards that element of the country's production which is its greatest refining influence.

For the rest of Canada, however, there is little encouragement given to art, and the need is great. There is no lack of talent or appreciation; it is springing up and bearing fruit on all sides where there is the proper soil and cultivation. Given the art schools and art galleries, they will be filled, and it should be the work of each provincial government and each municipality to provide at least some training which may convince the aspirant of his fitness or unfitness to enter the world of artistic production.

And lastly there is the National Art Gallery at Ottawa, the

capital of the Dominion. Founded as the repository of the Royal Canadian Academician's diploma pictures in 1880, it has existed for thirty-two years, but only lived, it might be said, for the last five, when an Advisory Arts Council was appointed by the government to spend its annual grants and to some extent administer its affairs. The president of the Advisory Arts Council is Sir Edmund Walker, C.V.O., LL.D., D.C.L. A director was appointed in 1910 and the National Gallery was granted more spacious though still temporary quarters in the Victoria Memorial Museum, where it now occupies three floors in the east wing, the two lower devoted to a well-arranged and interesting collection of casts and the top floor to one large picture gallery and seven small ones. Here, at least, one may study the rise and progress of Canadian art in its entirety. Every artist of note is represented, and it is the intention of the National Gallery to provide a most complete collection of Canadian art from its earliest days and at the same time the best collection procurable of the world's artistic endeavor.

The five years of systematic government have done much, and there is much more yet to do; but at least it can be said that in addition to the representation of Canadian art the visitor can follow the history of the world's art from the primitive Italians to Caravaggio, the first of the great naturalists, and through the great Dutch and Spanish schools of the seventeenth century to the eighteenth century school of English portrait painters, fathered by Thornhill and Hogarth, and thence to the broken color impressionist who seeks to let the light of his picture shine before men by placing his pure colors side by side instead of mixing them. Hogarth, Reynolds, Gainsborough, Hoppner, Beechey and Lawrence are finely represented by portraits; Millais by his portrait of The Marquis of Lorne, founder of the Royal Canadian Academy; Watts by a replica of his "Time, Death and Judgment;" Holman Hunt by his portrait of Henry Wentworth Monk, Canadian visionary and worker for universal peace; Leighton by a finely painted head; the Barbizon school is represented by both pictures and drawings; the eclectic Italians by a group of drawings from the late Duke of Rutland's collection; Chardin and De Heem by wonderful examples of still life.

The National Gallery has lately acquired a collection of a hundred engravings by the greatest of the French portrait engravers,

Nanteuil—a unique and magnificent representation of the master's genius. To a country upon which the great French statesmen of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries wielded such influence, the collection is invaluable, both from artistic and historical viewpoints.

Boudin is there with a magnificent blue *Vue D'Etaples*; Bauer, the contemporary Dutch painter and etcher, with oil and water color paintings and a representative collection of etchings; and among recent purchases are "The Green Feather," by Laura Knight, which gained distinction at the 1912 international exhibition at the Carnegie Institute at Pittsburgh; a fine marine by Paul Dougherty, and some others.

The future of the National Gallery is the building of a beautiful and permanent home on one of the finest sites of the city in which there will be adequate room for permanent and loan collections, where the national portraits may be fittingly exhibited, and where the visitor to the capital, the inhabitant and the student, who will one day be working in a national or municipal art school nearby, may study in its entirety the progress and power of Canadian art.

It is early to attempt to define the national characteristic of Canadian art. A national spirit is being slowly born, one might perhaps say it walked abroad, but as yet between the lights. There are painters who are finding expression of their thought in the vast prairies of the far West, in the silent spaces of the North, by the side of torrent and tarn, and in the mighty solitudes of the winter woods. The appeal of the great land is every year more manifest, and is being expressed with an indefinable solemnity and deference which is nothing less than the first national utterance of a young art awake to a mighty heritage.

And what of the future? The future of Canadian art is development, advancement and recognition until it can be said that no Canadian painter needs to seek a living in another land; until there is artistic training to be had in every town; and until, greatest of all, the surplus wealth is directed towards supporting and welcoming all artistic endeavor with all the pride of the patriot in a great national achievement.

SOME CANADIAN TRAITS

BY W. A. CHAPPLE, M.P.,
London, England.

The Canadians are a frank, open, generous people. They are all busy, all making money, all trying to make more, all in a fair way of doing it. But you may stop one anywhere, at any time, and ask information, and you will get it when he has it to give, in the kindest and most friendly way. There is a fraternity everywhere. There are no class distinctions, at least none readily apparent. Servants become mistresses, gentlewomen become servants. There is a leveling up, and there is a leveling down. Servants and laborers are menials no more. The gentle born, and there are many in Canada, take to toil within their capacity, and are not degraded.

I see that a Canadian lady of distinction has said that the country does not want impecunious gentlewomen from Britain. I hesitate to differ from one so competent to judge, but I think for the sake of the gentlewomen, and for the sake of Canada, that kind of immigration is just what both need.

The life of an impoverished gentlewoman in England is hard to endure. She is cribbed, cabined, confined by severe and cruel conventionalities. There are so many things she dare not do, so many things she must not resemble. She eats, drinks and sleeps on the edge of degradation from what she and her friends think is her high status. Pray let her escape from her prison house, and breathe the freedom of Canada. She will not be despised there if she works. She will be valued for her service, not for what her class and ancestry have "coralled." She will be measured by what she is and does, and will see nothing false in the weights. There are many such women in Canada. They are a credit to their caste, and class, and country, and are a great gain to Canada. They lose nothing themselves, they confer much on others.

Their education, speech, manners, and refinement of thought and feeling are a valuable influence, especially with Canadian children in the schools. Shakespeare, and Bunyan, and the Bible, are not sufficient to check the mutilation of our good old Saxon tongue; a heaven of culture and refinement will do good to the lump, and no

harm to the heaven. The changes are terrifying to those who cherish our literature and speech. "To law," is to go to law; "to suicide," is to commit suicide; "to jail," is to lock up; "to room," is to live in a room; "to figure," is to calculate. The corruption of the language is in rapid progress; and the newspapers and the preachers are the least excusable offenders.

There is a constant migration within the boundaries of Canada, and there is a constant flow from Europe and America. Of these currents, the most important and significant is that which flows northwards from the United States. There are nearly one hundred million people within a day or two's railway journey of the Canadian boundary line. Consider what this means.

The Americans are an alert and enterprising nomadic people like ourselves. They are getting overcrowded. Their agricultural land has risen to from £20 to £40 per acre and even more. They have been growing much wheat. They are going out of it. They hear that virgin land as good as theirs ever was in its unexhausted days can be bought a day or two's journey off, for £2 or £3 per acre. Read this clipping from a Calgary daily paper: "9-8-12. STATES FACING FAMINE; Unless soil is improved will have to import products. Chicago, Aug. 9.—That America is facing a famine unless agricultural conditions are vastly improved, was the general opinion of the speakers at the annual meeting of the National Soil Fertility League yesterday. 'Statistics show that agriculture in the United States has been so neglected that within twenty years we will be forced to import our principal products from foreign lands. We are facing an inevitable famine unless the soil is greatly improved,' said Mr. Gross, President of the Organization."

American land is becoming exhausted, and stands in need of a more expensive fertilization. Owners can sell out at a lower figure than they paid and start again in Canada. If the old people are still anchored to the farm, their sons are free to emigrate. And Canada offers more inducements than any other state in their Union. The climate is no worse in Ontario, Saskatchewan or Manitoba than in the central states of the American Union, even far south of the international boundary. Their winters are a little shorter but they are quite as severe while they last, and infinitely worse than on the Pacific coast of British Columbia and the foothills of Alberta. And the fame of Canada has spread into these southern lands. I met very

many Americans who have settled in Canada, some of many years standing, some of but a few. They have nothing but praise for everything Canadian except Canadian apathy in business.

One interesting specimen from the central states, in answer to my inquiry as to the attractiveness of Canada to the American, leaned toward me, and in a semi-confidential whisper, as if he were imparting to me some knowledge that might be of service to me, said, "Why, if you shoot a man here they hang you." He ignored my smile. "Law's respected here," he continued, "two neighboring farmers near me in Kentucky once lawed about six hogs, and it took ten years for the courts to settle it, and when they did the two lawyers had the two farms. Now here in Canada, I've had two law cases in two years, and the verdict was given in sixty days. They'd have taken six years in the States. An American here a little time ago was fined for keeping a 'bath house.' He took no notice. He was fined again. Still he took no notice. He could afford the fine, and had one hundred and fifty thousand dollars in real estate here. He got a year's imprisonment and was ordered out of the country on his release, and while he was leisurely going round with his dollars, trying to bribe the officials, they were making arrangements for his deportation. He was conducted to the boundary, and I'm sure he hasn't recovered from his stupefaction yet. Just fancy," he added, "the States deporting a man with one hundred and fifty thousand dollars!"

These facts amaze the Americans. They have discovered that Canada is a country of law and order. They come from a country in which during the three Boer war years, 1899, 1900 and 1901, there were more people murdered than were killed during that war, among the whole British army.

Contemplate these figures with which the people of the States are familiar: Persons murdered in the United States of America during 1899, 1900 and 1901, 18,466; executions of murderers for these murders, 356. The number of murderers unchanged was 18,110. Of those executed an average of two years elapsed before the sentence was carried out. In 1896, there were 10,652 murders and only 122 legal executions. The total number of British deaths in the Boer war was under 20,000, including those who died of enteric fever. Is it at all surprising that Americans appreciate the respect for law and order that prevails in Canada? The American cannot

believe this till he sees it, but when he sees it, he talks about it, he writes about it. It is the one conspicuous difference that he notices.

Another thing that he notices and writes back about is the absence of graft, or graft in its worst and most oppressive form. He discovers too that he gets on. He is thrown amongst a people who are virile, but are not hustlers. He can out-run them in business and he does. The Canadian in business and in industry, though solid and successful, is casual and apparently indifferent. His more aggressive competitor caters more for his client, is more eager to win his custom, hustles more on his behalf and does more trade. There is nothing more annoying to a visitor than the casualness of the Canadian.

Ask a tram-guard, a clerk, or a telephone operator, or a railway official, a question, and you will get an answer, but it is an answer which requires of him the minimum of response. He will not turn to look at you, his expression of stolid indifference will not alter, his lips will hardly move, his effort may be but a feeble, almost inarticulate grunt; or an almost imperceptible nod of the head or turn of the eye, will serve as an indication of direction. If the correct reply to you be an affirmative, he may make no response whatever, leaving it to be assumed by you that if his answer were in the negative he would make one; his absolute indifference to your question he means you to take as an affirmative response. The same casualness is observable everywhere, and is very disconcerting to visitors used to courteous and definite replies. But there is no incompetence or studied incivility, and the Canadian does not mean to be discourteous. This is simply an evidence of his independence and jack-easy manner. In the public service there is an even greater casualness, but it is often accompanied by a very obvious incompetence.

In so new, so varied and so rich a country as Canada, there is unlimited scope for private enterprise, so that as a general rule, only the "leavings" of private enterprise are available for the public service.

Here is a reply to an inquiry for particulars of lands for sale of a Canadian provincial government. The head of the department writes:

"DEAR SIR:

"I beg to acknowledge receipt of your favour of 20th instant, addressed to this Department, and in reply have to say that there

is still about two and a quarter millions of acres not granted. Some of this land is rocky, but some of it is capable of development.

"Yours very truly,"

I venture to hint that such a reply would have merited, if it had not earned, dismissal from any self-respecting real estate office in Canada, anxious to do business and to get clients. I would lay myself open to a charge of being unobservant or inaccurate if I did not here admit that there are exceptions to this rule. Still nothing is more conspicuous than the apathetic indifference of government officials behind the counter, or the slow serpiginous movements of clerks who wander aimlessly amongst other clerks seeking information, which they will lazily pass over the counter without real knowledge or a sense of responsibility.

These slow, careless and sleepy movements are characteristic of all the officials in Canada, whether in the government or in private service. It takes longer to get a railway or a steamer ticket in Canada than in any other place in the world I know, and I have circumnavigated it five times. Now the American sails on to this sea of casual indifference and he gets a "move on." He hustles, to use his own expressive term. He gets the business. He does the work. He receives the patronage. He finds it a happy hunting ground because the competition is less fierce and his competitor is still asleep.

I am referring to business enterprises of all kinds. In the field of industry this is not true. The manual worker is the most diligent in the Anglo-Saxon world. Stand and watch a group of men at work almost anywhere in Canada, on road, or building, or railway construction, or street repair; at any work involving muscular effort, and you will be struck by the amount of joint-oil being put into their task. Where men are attending to machines they must of course keep pace, but when this necessity does not drive, the men are nevertheless at work—all at work, and always at work. This is in conspicuous contrast with the ordinary English worker. But then the Canadian gets about double the wage.

A bricklayer in British Columbia gets 24s. per day, a carpenter gets 18s. to 20s. per day. An unskilled worker gets 10s. to 12s. per day. The homesteaders making roads to their farms in Vancouver Island were getting 12s. a day from the government, and it was

currently reported that they were not watched very closely to see what days or place they selected for their toil. If a laborer gets the full reward of his labor he gives the full reward of his wage. I believe that to be true, and I believe the idleness and inefficiency of many types of the English workman at home to be due to a sullen protest against the conditions under which he has for generations been forced to labor. The employer has never been willing to share his profits with his workers in anything like a reasonable proportion. In Canada he is, and he does it; and his men are diligent, conscientious, self-respecting toilers, who give the full reward of their wage.

The Americans then are the real and prospective immigrants to Canada. They, too, have discovered Canada. They have formed an accurate estimate of her enormous resources, of her virgin forests ready for the axe, her fertile soil ready for the plow, her coal deposits ready for the pick, her products and her people ready for the rail; and their enterprise has said to them, "Go ye up and possess the land, for it is a goodly land, a land flowing with milk and honey." They do not require to take it by conquest. It is theirs for the asking, as much as it is yours and mine. All are welcome at its hospitable board, all are invited to sit down, eat, drink and be merry. Its gifts are there for all, and all may share its bounteous fruits. The invitation is being accepted by the Americans, and I am convinced that a big section of that one hundred million people will find their way across the forty-ninth parallel of latitude before many years are over.

But the American is not liked by the Canadian. To the Canadian he is an intruder, and perhaps this partly accounts for the very obvious prejudice against him. For that prejudice is much stronger than it once was. It does not exist in Britain. It is peculiar to Canada, and I cannot see that it is justified. Still, the Canadian likes his dollars, and these dollars, and the "go" behind them, are helping to push the country ahead.

Canada will become more and more American in its characteristics, and will ultimately be indistinguishable from its neighbor, except on the map and in its constitution.

British immigration to Canada will probably lessen as time goes on. The most easily detachable from their British environment have already been detached, and this source of supply has been greatly reduced. Moreover, the selective discrimination that

Canada has recently undertaken has of itself limited the supply. With this selective process instituted by Canada in self-protection, the enthusiasm of British immigration societies has to some extent diminished. But Britain is realizing that this selective emigration of her best people has about gone far enough. She can spare no more of her best workers, the only stock that Canada will take. To keep them she must pay better wages and give more and better opportunities. And she is doing this. The Scottish Smallholders Land Act was designed to give them opportunities, and one of the chief arguments that helped to make the bill an urgent measure was the emigration from Scotland's farming districts to Canada.

All the social legislation at present in the lap of the liberal party in Britain ready for distribution is designed to make and will have the effect of making the old land more attractive to the working people. All these factors tend against the trend of British emigration to Canada.

Then there is the competition of the other colonies. The summer suns of South Africa, Australia and New Zealand have their own peculiar charm and attraction for those who still dread the winter frost and snow of northern latitudes.

Just think of it! A wilderness of vast extent in less than a generation is dotted all over, not with homes only, but with cities, and cobwebbed with railways. The transformation is amazing. Where they got the material, the artisans, the plumbers, the money and the men is a riddle. A wooden house, a Canadian calls old (but would be considered new in any other country) withers like Jonah's gourd in a single night, and Hey! Presto! a ten-story steel construction sky-scraper rears itself upon the withered ruins. Plains and riverbanks grow villages, villages become towns, towns become great cities, and all while you wait. No! it is not the country. It is the people. No other race could do it. The tireless energy, the expanding optimism, the skill and capacity of these nation-building giants of the West! Their energy and their optimism are infectious. It spreads like a contagion. Everyone is seized with it. And all are on the same trail. They are working for the same cause. They are reaching out to the same goal. And they will all get there!

There is an integrity about them, an evidence of honest endeavor. All, all who go there catch the spirit. They fall into line. They join in the chase. There is no spiteful rivalry. Men after the same

dollar will smile to each other by the way, cheer each other's efforts and rejoice with the winner, whoever he may be. There is kinship rather than hostility; friendly rivalry rather than bitter opposition. There is competition, but it is not cut-throat competition. I admired that spirit in Canada and I think it is fairly general—most certainly in the West. The same healthy rivalry exists between towns, Regina and Saskatoon, Lethbridge and Medicine Hat, Calgary and Edmonton, Victoria and Vancouver, Alberni and Old Alberni. The newspaper correspondents to whom I will refer enter into the spirit of it. They do not decry the rival town, they exhaust their vocabulary in praise of their own. The most popular work of reference in a correspondent's library is the "Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases." I read an article in praise of Vancouver, and it was simply a succession of superlatives culled from this booster's "Vade Vecum."

Now what would you expect from this city-building while you wait? Plumbers cannot be manufactured in a day like a tap or a gully trap, and plumbing is the most technical and important part of a building. You would expect plumbers to be scarce, plumbing to be defective, drainage to be scamped and typhoid to be rife. This is just what you do find. Ottawa, one of the empire's most beautiful cities, had a typhoid epidemic in full blast, when I was there, sixty-four cases "reported" on a Saturday and 102 on a Monday. There was one argument in everyone's mouth; and in the mouth of two witnesses shall every word be established. The argument was "I told you so." Now the worst thing one can say against a man is,—well, you might have been told it already. And the worst thing one can say about a town is that it has typhoid. That is positively the lowest character a town can have. What does it mean? It means just exactly what the Bible says, and the Bible does not mince matters.

Anyone but an Ottawan can see the cause of typhoid in the city streets—uneven pavements, depressed footpaths, cracked and tilted flagstones. These inequalities in the surface spell even greater inequalities in the underlying drains, which in their turn spell sewage deposit, stagnant flow, decomposition, sewer gas, defective traps, vitiated air, contaminated water and milk—all media, all carriers, but only one primary cause, sewer gas regurgitation from defective drains. People persist in going miles afield for causes when they

are under their nose. Some want a new water system, others want the supply from another lake or river, others want to exterminate dairies, others want to inoculate the cows, others to vaccinate everybody, but nobody wants to clean up.

The newspapers of the West are in their infancy. So one does not expect too much. Their paper is bad, their slips numerous and their matter weak. Their headings are grotesque. Look at this:

EMPEROR ABSOLUTE
OF DYNAMIC FORCE

Official Who is Playing Havoc
With Gorges and Canyons
That Give Trouble

IS WORKING IN SILENCE

Man Who Scarcely Ever Speaks
But Who is Smashing
Up the Earth.

They have telegraphic news from most places in Canada, but I think their local correspondents are nearly all real estate agents. This news gives the name of new firms starting business, or promising to, or have circulated a rumor to this effect—the phenomenal and unprecedented rise in the price of lots, with a few examples, which it is left to be implied, are typical. They are what is commonly known as “boosting” messages. To “boost” is to crack up, to puff, to exercise your bump of wonder and to try and excite that of others. Auctioneers or cheap-jacks make the best newspaper correspondents in the Canadian West, and if they have a small but growing real estate business, just to fill in their spare time, this is an additional qualification. The empire news service is the worst in the British Dominions. A few scraps daily, badly placed, not a few obvious errors and often an incoherent jumble. The Rt. Hon. Herbert Samuel, the British Postmaster General, is perhaps one of the clearest thinkers, and the most concise, explicit and logical speakers in the

House of Commons. I will not quote the quarter column the papers gave him, lest he might see it, and I would not like to hurt his feelings. A Chicago paper that I studied about two years ago, when on a visit there, had thirty-six columns of reading matter, and seven and one-half columns of this were cable messages from London.

The dailies in the great Australian and New Zealand towns print from four to six columns of world cable news a day, and the people constantly clamor for more and complain of its meagreness. If there were less "boost" and more British news, less sensational garbage gathered from anywhere, chiefly in the States, and more edifying matter from the world's best writers and journals, the Canadians would be a better educated people and the journalistic profession would rise in influence, as the proprietary would rise in wealth.

The people of the world who had a choice and who had the means and power of making that choice effective, have never, at any place or in any age, selected the torrid zone for their home. No free people does that now, notwithstanding the spread of knowledge of these regions, the ease and cheapness of migration and the comparative security of life and property there. The virile people of the Mediterranean chose the north shores rather than the summier South; the Phoenecians from the Levant migrated west and northwest; the Mandarin Chinese kept to the northern latitudes; the restless wandering Teutons kept their gaze to the west and north; the Pilgrim Fathers kept to a similar latitude; those of the South African and South American colonizing people who were free to choose, selected the lower latitude and the temperate zones; and even within the temperate zones nations free to choose and move, showed no disposition to crowd towards the equator. Russia, Germany, Scandinavia, Britain, China and the United States are all witnesses whose evidence is on record; and within the temperate zone those races that have kept furthest from the equator, yet within that sphere, are the hardiest people. I call to witness the Scottish Highlanders, the Scandinavian Norsemen, the Russian Moujik, the German of the North, the Chinese Mandarin, the American Indians, and in the Southern Hemisphere, the Patagonian and the Maori. Latitude fifty-five is the mother of men.

The United States has no advantage that Canada does not enjoy, no natural resource of any value not found in Canada, no soil

that Canada cannot match, no power Canada cannot equal, no territory Canada cannot measure with her own. And she has the magic latitude of fifty-five. She has all the advantages, none of the disadvantages, all the prospects, all the example; the same race, the same human reservoir to tap and move, and if history and latitude do not lie, she will provide a finer race of men.

Although Canada is an infant nation she is no longer a babe in arms. She is growing into sturdy precocity and is anxious and eager to take her place with kindred nations in the family circle. Though Canada is working, and working hard with conspicuous success, she is thinking too; and she is thinking for herself. She is old enough and she is wise enough, and she needs little help from others.

I believe that the next stage in the evolution of Canada will be intellectual and spiritual. I do not mean spiritual in the religious sense, but spiritual in the national sense—contact of her national spirit with the spirit of history, her history, our history; a passion for a more intimate unity with the spirituality of the Anglo-Saxon race of which she is so great and an ever-growing part. She will recognize our common heritage and destiny. She does, but it will be more a passion than a sentiment, and it will express itself on the intellectual and spiritual side. She will develop her schools and colleges and extend their influence downwards; she will acquire a passion for our common literature; she will pride herself in culture and the fine arts, and recognizing her oneness with her race, she will blend her spirit with our own. I can hear the ground-rumble in our own country of that discontent, on which disloyalty grows like a weed. There is none to be heard in Canada. There is not a disloyal fibre in her whole constitution, not even in Quebec. If Britain needed them, legions of warriors would spring from every mountain valley and every prairie spot in Canada. There is one danger ahead. The States will spread over Canada. They may Americanize her. This will be good for Anglo-Saxondom, but bad for Canada, bad for spiritual Canada, I mean, not for material Canada. American money, energy and enterprise will help to develop her, but they will damage the spirit.

The hope is that Canada will prove resistant to this spirit, and that Americans invading gradually will catch her spirit as they have so far done. I hope and believe that Anglo-Saxon reunion is the

destiny of the English-speaking race. An offensive and defensive alliance now is not too wild a dream. Reconcile Ireland, and one great obstacle is gone forever. Our descent is common—in history, in literature and in religion. Our ideals are one, our hopes and fears are one. Our enemies are the enemies of civilization. We stand for progress, peace, and concord among the nations of the earth.

CANADIAN LITERATURE

BY J. CASTELL HOPKINS, F.S.S.,
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Canada possesses a literature of which it may be reasonably proud. It has grown with the growth of the country and reaches its highest point at the present time when the Dominion also attains its greatest stature in external influence and internal unity. The beginning of this literature lies far back in the old French annals of discovery, travel and adventure. The chief of these works, reaching down to the bed-rock of our history as a people, are the chronicles of Cartier's voyages; the similar narrative concerning Champlain; the histories by Marc L'Escarbot and Gabriel Sagard of De Monts' settlements and of the Hurons, respectively; Father Louis Hennepin's *Canadian Discoveries and Voyages*; the famous *Relations des Jesuites*; the semi-religious annals of Father Le Clerq; Le Hontan's somewhat unreliable works of travel; and the foremost and best of all these early chronicles, the *Histoire et Description Generale de la Nouvelle France*, by Pierre Francois Xavier de Charlevoix. Of course, the most abundant materials for the history of this period are to be found in the *Jesuit Relations*, especially in the magnificent publication edited by R. G. Thwaites, of Cleveland, U. S., but the six volumes by Charlevoix, first brought out in France in 1744, were the product of a clear, able and practised writer, and as such are of the highest value.

These volumes, taken together, constitute the basis of all historical literature in Canada and are, therefore, of great importance, although not written by Canadians in the modern sense of that word. Equally important is the splendid series of volumes written by Francis Parkman¹ and forming a veritable mine of brilliantly comprehensive history of early Canadian events and personages. His picture of the Indian is drawn a little too luridly, perhaps, but, apart from that, there is little criticism that one may venture to offer. It is also

¹ They were published as follows: *The Oregon Trail* (1847); *The Conspiracy of Pontiac* (1851); *Pioneers of France in the New World* (1865); *The Jesuits in North America* (1867); *La Salle and the Discovery of the Great West* (1869); *The Old Regime in Canada* (1874); *Frontenac and New France Under Louis XIV* (1877); *Montcalm and Wolf* (1884); *A Half Century of Conflict*, (1892).

obvious that although the author was an American by birth and residence, his works can hardly be eliminated from any record of Canadian historical literature into which they throw the searching light of a strong mind and eloquent pen.

With the fascinating fur-trade period, the days of exploration and adventure in the far Northwest, came a further succession of works by outside pens. Sir Alexander Mackenzie's *Voyages*, published in 1802, La France's *Explorations* of the country adjoining Hudson's Bay (1744), Samuel Hearne's *Journey* in the same regions (1795), and Alexander Henry's *Narratives* (1809), are vivid reminders of the lives and labors of pioneers in a new country. So with *The Red River Settlement*, by Alexander Ross (1856), Lord Selkirk's volumes and pamphlets upon the same subject and Sir George Simpson's *Overland Journey*. Following the earlier descriptive works of French and English writers came a series of volumes dealing with current events or conditions by men living for a time in British America, or traveling through its apparently boundless regions of lakes and forest wilderness.

The most important of these, from an historical as well as descriptive standpoint, were Francis Masères' constitutional and controversial publications; Major John Richardson's *War of 1812 and Eight Years in Canada* (1847); Mrs. Jameson's *Sketches in Canada* (1838); Colonel Talbot's *Five Years in the Canadas* (1824); George Heriot's *Travels* (1807) and those of Isaac Weld (1799) and John Lambert (1810); John Howison's *Sketches of Upper Canada* (1821); Basil Hall's *Travels* (1829); Sir R. B. Bonnycastle's *Excursions* (1841) and *Canada and the Canadians* (1846); Major G. D. Warburton's *Conquest of Canada* (1849); John Galt's *Autobiography* and his descriptive work upon *The Canadas*; Sir George Head's *Forest Scenes in North America*; Captain W. Moorsom's *Letters from Nova Scotia* (1830) and Lieutenant-Colonel Strickland's *Twenty-seven Years in Canada West*. The following list gives the names of a number of writers of less important volumes upon Canada which were, nevertheless, useful in their day and are now valuable from an historical point of view:

Joseph Robson (1752).
Thomas Anbury (1789).
Captain G. Cartwright (1792).
P. Campbell (1793).

J. C. Ogden (1797).
Captain G. Vancouver (1798).
Sir D. W. Smyth, Bart. (1799).
Duc de la Rochefoucauld-Liancourt.

Hugh Gray (1809).	Hugh Murray (1829).
John Mill-Jackson (1809).	Ross Cox (1831).
J. Melish (1812).	John McGregor (1832).
David Anderson (1814).	Sir James E. Alexander (1833).
M. Smith (1814).	Alfred Hawkins (1834).
Joseph Sansom (1817).	John Galt (1836).
Lieut. Edward Chappell (1817).	Edward Gibbon Wakefield (1837).
Francis Hall (1818).	T. R. Preston (1840).
John Palmer (1818).	J. S. Buckingham (1843).
E. Mackenzie (1819).	Rev. William Haw (1850).
Benjamin Siliman (1820).	Sir John Richardson (1851).
Gabriel Franchère (1820).	W. H. G. Kingston (1855).
C. Stuart (1820).	Captain Palliser (1863).
J. M. Duncan (1823).	Commander R. C. Mayne (1863).
Walter Johnstone (1823).	Hon. A. H. Gordon (Lord Stanmore)
John McTaggart (1829).	(1864).

Succeeding volumes of great interest to Canadians are those in which Sir W. H. Russell, Charles Mackay, Anthony Trollope, Captain Marryatt, Sir Charles Lyell, Sir Charles Dilke and Lady Vincent refer largely to the Dominion in describing their experiences and impressions of American travel, etc. R. Montgomery Martin, in his work upon the British Empire (1843), and Sir Charles Dilke, in his well-known *Problems of Greater Britain*, wrote authoritatively upon Canada. J. W. Kaye's *Life of Lord Metcalfe*, Scrope's *Life of Lord Sydenham*, Walrond's *Life and Letters of Lord Elgin* and Wright's *Life of Major-General Wolfe* were connected with Canadian literature in much the same way as the names mentioned were connected with the national annals. And, while these varied volumes cannot be technically claimed as a part of Canadian literature, if by that term we understand works written by Canadians, yet many of them were written in Canada. Some were published there and, taken together, they constitute a basis of information and description which any Canadian who desires to study or write of the early history of his country must be more or less familiar with.

For three decades following the periods of war with the United States, Canadian distinctive literary ambitions, apart from the contributions of French or English writers, slumbered amid surroundings of pioneer activity in field and forest, on lake and river. The axe of the settler, the river rafts of the lumberman, the canoe of the voyageur and the musket of the hunter embodied the practical and necessary aim of the people. With the progress of settlement, the growth of

the press and the development of an easier life in cities or towns came, however, the gradual production of a strictly native literature. One of the earliest native works and, perhaps, the most important of all French-Canadian historical volumes was the *Histoire du Canada* by Francois-Xavier Garneau. Published in the years 1845-48, translated in 1866, and republished in 1882, this work is the accepted national history of the French-Canadian section of our population. It holds the place in their minds and hearts which Kingsford's greater and more elaborate work will take amongst English-speaking Canadians. Subsidiary to this in importance, but of much value, were Michael Bibaud's *Histoire du Canada* under the French régime (1843); *Cours d'Histoire du Canada*, by Abbé J. B. A. Ferland (1861-5); *Histoire de la Colonie Francaise*, by l'Abbé Etienne M. Fallon (1865-6); *Histoire des Canadiens-Francais*, by Benjamin Sulte; *Le Canada Sous l'Union*, by Louis P. Turcotte; *Histoire de la Rebellion de 1837-38*, by L. O. David, and various works by l'Abbé R. H. Casgrain and F. M. U. M. Bibaud.

Meanwhile, literary progress in English-speaking Canada had been much slower and less productive. The competition of other interests and pursuits was keener and the characteristic physical activity of the race greater. The natural result was comparative indifference to anything except political controversy, through the medium of popular journals, or to the ever-present charm of English standard works. Hence, *The History of Lower Canada*, by Robert Christie, published in Quebec in six volumes in 1849-55, is one of the few works of importance written by English-Canadians during all these years. It is valuable for its statistical and documentary data as well as for the personal experience in the political struggles of the time which the author brought to bear upon his subject. Another notable production was Gilbert Auchinleck's *History of the War of 1812*, published in 1855. Works upon the same subject were also written by David Thompson, of Niagara, and Lieutenant-Colonel W. F. Coffin, of Montreal. Dr. Henry H. Miles' *History of Lower Canada* must also be mentioned with appreciation. Bouchette's *British Dominions in North America* (1831) was a most valuable topographical and statistical work, as were similar volumes published twenty years later by W. H. Smith. William Smith's *History of Canada up to 1791*, was a useful but somewhat one-sided work. D'Arcy Boulton, Q.C., published in 1805 a *Sketch of Upper Canada*,

which is now of historical interest, while Bishop Strachan's *Visit to Upper Canada* (1820), Robert Fleming Gourlay's *Statistical Account of Upper Canada* (1822) and William Lyon Mackenzie's *Sketches*, published in 1833, possess similar value and interest. Mrs. Catherine Parr Traill commenced her prolonged Canadian career of literary activity by a volume published in 1835 entitled *The Backwoods of Canada*, and afterwards wrote much upon the natural history and characteristics of the country. Her sister, Mrs. Susanna Moodie, was equally well known by *Roughing it in the Bush* and similar works. The Rev. Dr. Adam Lillie published, in 1846, a valuable work entitled *Canada: Physical, Economical and Social*.

With the coming of confederation there commenced a most distinct development of literary activity in Upper Canada and the Maritime Provinces—almost the creation of a new literature. The Hon. Joseph Howe's *Speeches and Public Letters* and D'Arcy McGee's *Speeches and Addresses* were natural and early products of this period and illustrated that eloquence which in all countries takes its place in the permanent literature of the land. The chief historical work done in the ensuing decade was certainly that of John Charles Dent. In his *Last Forty Years* (1841–81) and his *Rebellion of 1837* he produced most carefully written volumes of great value. They are marred by an inability, common to nearly all our Canadian writers, to do historical justice to the Tories of earlier days, but, aside from that fault, deserve a high place in Canadian literature. Following, or immediately preceding, these works came John Mercier MacMullen's *History of Canada* (editions 1855, 1867, 1892), Dr. W. H. Withrow's *History of the Dominion of Canada* (1878) and Dr. George Bryce's *Short History of the Canadian People* (1887). Beamish Murdoch, Duncan Campbell, Abraham Gesner, Andrew Archer, Alexander Munro and James Hannay, meanwhile, surrounded Haliburton's brilliant pen by historical productions of standard value concerning New Brunswick or Nova Scotia. Dr. William Canniff issued his work upon *The Settlement of Upper Canada* in 1869, and Dr. Egerton Ryerson published *The Loyalists of America* in 1881. Haliburton's works were the precursors of a multitude of books in which the so-called American style of humor was embodied. They had tremendous popularity in their day and will always have a place in literature.

Meanwhile the great Northwest had been coming into prominence, and with its union to Canada in 1871 there grew up a mass of

descriptive and historical literature. Not exactly native of the soil but still instinct with the life and progress of the prairies, were a number of works published by travelers, some a short time prior to the above date. Chief of the latter was *The North-West Passage by Land*, written by Lord Milton and Mr. Cheadle. Others of an after-time were General Sir W. F. Butler's *Great Lone Land*, Stuart Cumberland's *Highway from Ocean to Ocean*, W. Fraser Rae's *Columbia and Canada*, Captain Huyshe's *Red River Rebellion* and Charles Marshall's *The Canadian Dominion*. But the promising field was soon occupied by Canadians. Paul Kane wrote his *Wanderings of an Artist* in 1859. Archbishop Taché in 1870 published a volume entitled *A Sketch of the North-West of America* and Principal Grant soon afterwards issued his fascinating little book *From Ocean to Ocean. The Prairie Province*, by J. C. Hamilton; *The Creation of Manitoba*, by Alexander Begg; *England and Canada*, a volume of travels across the continent by Sir Sandford Fleming; *Canada on the Pacific*, by Charles Horetzky, C.E.; the Hon. Alexander Morris's work upon *Indian Treaties*; *From Ontario to the Pacific*, by Mrs. Spragge, and *Mountain and Prairie*, by the Rev. Dr. D. M. Gordon; *Our North Land*, by C. R. Tuttle; *The History of Manitoba*, by Messrs. Gunn and Tuttle; and—most important to all the seekers after general information—Professor Macoun's *Manitoba and the North West* (1882) followed.

Four narratives of the second Northwest Rebellion have been written by G. Mercer Adam, the Rev. C. P. Mulvaney, M.A., Colonel the Hon. C. A. Boulton and the Rev. R. G. MacBeth, respectively. In 1894-95 appeared an elaborate and valuable, though not well-arranged work, in three volumes, by Alexander Begg, F.S.S., of Winnipeg, upon *The History of the North-West*. At the same time there was published *The History of British Columbia*, by Alexander Begg, of Victoria, B. C.—the pioneer work upon that particular subject. *The Selkirk Settlement*, by the Rev. R. G. MacBeth, of Winnipeg, a work upon the *Indians of the North-West*, by Dr. John MacLean, and narratives of pioneer missionary life by the Rev. E. R. Young and the Rev. George Young, must also be mentioned as of sterling interest and value. To return to Ontario, W. J. Rattray's *Scot in British North America* showed great ability and Nicholas Flood Davin's *Irishmen in Canada* was a work of unusual brilliancy and interest. J. Edmund Collins wrote a history of the administra-

tion of Lord Lorne which was marred by the constant intrusion of views peculiar to himself and fatal in their expression to any impartial presentation of current annals, while Dr. George Stewart published in 1878 a well-written and standard work upon Lord Dufferin's administration. William Leggo, of Winnipeg, was also author of a volume, full of valuable documents, upon the same subject.

From this time on new life was infused into Canadian literature by the gradual growth of a Canadian market, and of readers from the Atlantic to the Pacific into whose minds had filtered the slow but certain consciousness of a Canadian national sentiment and an appreciation of Canadian history, scenery, achievements and leaders. Within the next few years several histories of Canada appeared. First and foremost was the great work of Dr. William Kingsford, a monument of research, honest effort and patriotic principle. Inspired by the desire to give a broad view of Canadian historic life, unmarred by race or religious prejudice, he commenced the work in 1887, at the age of sixty-eight, and issued a volume a year until the ten volumes were completed in 1898. The author gave a distinctly new view of early struggles in Canada based upon deep study of its documentary annals. The work was not an eloquent one nor was it written in an interesting way, but, with all limitations in this direction and all faults of style and arrangement admitted, the work remains and must continue for an indefinite period, to be the standard history of the country up to the union of 1841. Two single volume histories of interest and value were those of Charles G. D. Roberts and Sir John George Bourinot. The latter was written for the *Story of the Nations* series. The Rev. W. P. Greswell, M.A., of Cambridge, England, published a *History of Canada* some years ago which affords a useful summary. School histories of Canada were written in the early sixties by Dr. J. George Hodgins and Mr. (now Chancellor Sir) J. A. Boyd. Later, Messrs W. J. Robertson and G. Mercer Adam published a small volume and still more recently those written by W. H. P. Clement, B.A., of Toronto, and J. B. Calkin, M.A., of Truro, N. S., have been issued. D. B. Read, Q.C., besides some serious biographical work, published in 1897 a history of that fruitful theme, *The Rebellion of 1837*.

Of great value in an historical sense and of importance also as indicating the growth of a strong and permanent interest in Canadian annals were the local histories issued during these years. The following were the most important:

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| Toronto of Old | Landmarks of Toronto (5 vols.) |
| Rev. Dr. H. Scadding. | J. Ross Robertson. |
| The Roman Catholic Church in the | Pioneer Sketches of Long Point Settle- |
| Niagara Peninsula | ment |
| Very Rev. Dean Harris. | E. A. Owen. |
| Sketches of Upper Canada | The Eastern Townships |
| Thomas Conant. | Mrs. C. M. Day. |
| Counties of Leeds and Grenville | History of Compton County |
| T. W. H. Leavitt. | L. S. Channell. |
| History of Scarborough | Lake St. Louis: Old and New |
| David Boyle. | Hon. D. Girouard. |
| History of Picton, N. S. | History of Annapolis County |
| Rev. Dr. G. Patterson. | Judge Savary. |
| History of Glengarry County | History of Huntingdon County |
| J. A. Macdonnell, Q.C. | Robert Sellar. |
| Historical Sketch of Dundas | History of Galt and Dumfries |
| James Croil. | Hon. James Young. |
| Quebec, Past and Present | Picturesque Quebec |
| Sir James LeMoine. | Sir James LeMoine. |
| La Seigneurie de Lauzon | Historical Account of Cape Breton |
| J. Edmond Roy. | Sir J. G. Bourinot. |
| The Parish of Sault au Recollet | History of Halifax City |
| Rev. C. P. Beaubien. | T. B. Aikin, D.C.L. |
| The County of Lunenburg, N. B. | The Saguenay and Lake St. John |
| M. D. DesBrisay. | Arthur Buies. |
| Montreal, Past and Present | History of Argenteuil and Prescott |
| Alfred Sandham. | C. Thomas. |
| Peterborough and Victoria | Annals of Niagara |
| Hon. Thomas White. | W. Kirby. |
| L'Île d'Orléans | History of Northern New Brunswick |
| Abbé L. E. Bois. | R. Cooney. |
| Louisbourg in 1745 (edited) | Ten Years in Winnipeg |
| Prof. G. M. Wrong. | A. Begg, W. R. Nursey. |
| Handbook on Montreal | Toronto Called Back |
| Dr. S. E. Dawson. | C. C. Taylor. |
| Toronto, Past and Present | History of the County of Brant |
| G. Mercer Adam. | C. P. Mulvaney. |
| Ottawa, Past and Present | Toronto: An Historical Sketch |
| C. Roger. | J. Castell Hopkins. |
| The Ontario Parliament Buildings | Chronique du Rimouski |
| Frank Yeigh. | l'Abbé C. Guay. |

Easily first of Canadian writers upon specific localities was Sir James Macpherson Le Moine, whose busy pen made his name a household word in the Province of Quebec. M. Faucher de St. Maurice

in his day contributed some fascinating pages to the local annals of the same Province. *Picturesque Canada*, edited by Principal Grant, was a notable work in this connection. Minor books of interest upon descriptive subjects were l'Abbé V. A. Huard's work on Labrador and Anticosti; the Hon. Thomas White's *Chronicles by the Way* in Manitoba and the Northwest (1879); Alexander Munro's volume on the resources, etc., of the Dominion, published in 1879; the Rev. Dr. A. Sutherland's *A Summer in Prairie Land* (1881); and Miss Mary Fitzgibbon's *Trip to Manitoba*. Turning to later volumes upon special periods or events in Canadian history, reference must be made to Lady Edgar's *Ten Years of Upper Canada, 1805-15*; M. Edouard Richard's *History of the Acadians*; and especially to the numerous valuable pamphlets written by Colonel Ernest Cruikshank, of Niagara. Alexander MacArthur's volume on *The Causes of the Manitoba Rising in 1869-70*; C. R. Tuttle's *Illustrated History of Canada* (1879); the two works by Robina and Kathleen Lizars entitled *Humours of '37* and *In the Days of the Canada Company; Stories from Canadian History*, by T. G. Marquis, and a similar volume in collaboration with Miss Agnes Maule Machar entitled *Stories of New France*; the Rev. R. G. MacBeth's *Farm Life in the Selkirk Colony* must also be mentioned with appreciation.

For many years Dr. Douglas Brymner, the keeper of the Canadian archives, did a quiet work of value beyond estimate to future Canadian historians, authors and statesmen. His annually published volume, or report, contained a mass of documentary data upon our early history of unique interest. George Johnson, as dominion statistician and editor of the *Government Year-Book* and by such valuable little publications as *First Things in Canada* also did much to extend knowledge of modern Canada as Dr. Brymner did of earlier Canada. In this connection another writer deserves attention, though he would be the last to claim any particular brilliancy of style or beauty of language—Henry J. Morgan. In days when Canadian literature was popularly supposed to be non-existent; when Canadian sentiment was a somewhat intangible quantity and was certainly not applied to the purchase of the product of Canadian pens, Mr. Morgan wrote and published a continuous succession of books, calculated to preserve important historical and biographical details and promote public knowledge of matters Canadian. The following list of his works may be given here:

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| Tour of H. R. H. The Prince of Wales (1860). | The Bibliotheca Canadensis (1867). |
| Sketches of Celebrated Canadians (1862). | The Canadian Legal Directory (1878). |
| Buchanan on Industrial Politics (edited) (1864). | Canadian Men and Women of the Time (1898). |
| Speeches of Hon. T. D'Arcy McGee (edited) (1865). | Canadian Men and Women of the Time (1911). |
| The Place of British Americans in History (1865). | Canadian Parliamentary Companion (1862-76). |
| | Dominion Annual Register (edited) (1878-86). |

Another author who wrote much about Canada which deserved appreciation was G. Mercer Adam. His editorial work in connection with the *Canadian Monthly* and the *Canadian Educational Monthly*; his *History of the Canadian North West* and a Canadian novel written in conjunction with Miss Wetherald; his *Outline of Canadian Literature* and many hand-books of Canadian cities or districts; his continuous contributions in papers, periodicals and works of local history did much good service to the country. Of great and permanent value in Canadian history is Dr. J. George Hodgins' *Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada* (28 volumes) and a volume made up of various special contributions entitled *Eighty Years Progress of British North America*, which was published in 1864. Special reference must also be made to a most exhaustive work upon British Columbia by E. R. Gosnell, *The Year-Book for 1897*. Of a different nature but still none the less valuable were the works upon *Political Appointments and Elections in United Canada from 1841 to 1865* compiled by the late J. O. Coté and continued for the whole Dominion up to 1895 by his son, N. Omer Coté. Mention may also be made of A. T. McCord's *Canadian Dictionary of Dates*, James Kirby's *B. N. A. Almanac* (1864) and Arthur Harvey's *Year-Book*, which he edited from 1867 to 1870. In this connection a word must be said of the valuable literature of specified and special subjects which is contained in the publications or annual proceedings of the Nova Scotia Historical Society, the Manitoba Historical Society, the Quebec Historical and Literary Society, the Royal Society of Canada, the Canadian Institute, the Niagara Historical Society, the New Brunswick Historical Society, the Numismatic and Antiquarian Society of Montreal and other similar organizations.

Biography is an important adjunct of history, and in many

cases furnishes the most faithful and interesting form of historic writing. It is only in recent years that Canadian development has reached the stage of appreciating this particular phase of literary labor, though it now seems to have taken a strong hold upon popular opinion. Condensed and short biographies comprise the earlier form of this branch of our literature, and Dent's *Canadian Portrait Gallery*, Fennings Taylor's *British Americans*, Morgan's *Celebrated Canadians* and Rose's *Cyclopædia of Canadian Biography* were standard works in this respect. *The Canadian Biographical Dictionary*, Dr. Cochrane's *Men of Canada* and Louis H. Taché's *Men of To-Day* were useful volumes for purposes of biographical reference, though the first two works were marred by the intrusion of names which should never have been given space. F. R. E. Campeau's *Illustrated Guide to the Senate and Commons* (1879) and C. H. Mackintosh's *Parliamentary Companion*, continued to date by J. A. Gemmill, A. J. Magurn and E. J. Chambers, must also be mentioned. D. B. Read's *Lives of the Judges*, Dr. Mockridge's work upon the Bishops of the Church of England in Canada, Fennings Taylor's *Last Three Bishops* appointed by the Crown in Canada are of importance. In Quebec, the valuable work upon its Roman Catholic Bishops, *Les Evêques de Quebec*, by Mgr. Henri Têtu and the historical supplement in six volumes entitled *Les Mandements des Evêques*, must be mentioned. L. O. David published a couple of volumes of miscellaneous French-Canadian biography. *Les Canadiens de l'Ouest*, by the Hon. Joseph Tassé and *La Genealogie les Familles Canadiennes*, by Mgr. Cyprian Tanguay, were both of standard value. The earliest biographical works of an individual character, and of any note, included Hon. W. Anaund's *Letters and Speeches of Joseph Howe* (1858) and Edward Ermatinger's *Life of Colonel Talbot* (1859).² Other works were as follows:

TITLE AND AUTHOR

Memoir of Sir Brenton Haliburton	Life of Mgr. Provencher
Rev. George W. Hill.	L'Abbé G. Dugas.
Life of Sir William Logan	Life of F. X. Garneau
Prof. B. J. Harrington.	Hon. P. J. O. Chauveau.
Life of Bishop Richardson	Life of Sir John Macdonald
Rev. Dr. Thomas Webster.	J. Edmund Collins.

²Though not written by Canadians, reference must be made here to W. L. Stone's *Biographies of Thayendanegea and Sir William Johnson*.

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| Life of Egerton Ryerson
Dr. J. George Hodgins. | Life of Sir John Macdonald
J. P. McPherson. |
| Life of Hon. George Brown
Hon. A. Mackenzie. | Life of Sir John Macdonald
Joseph Pope. |
| Life of Archbishop Lynch
H. C. McKeown. | Life of Sir Isaac Brock
D. B. Read, Q.C. |
| Life of Bishop Strachan
Rt. Rev. Dr. A. N. Bethune. | Life of J. Graves Simcoe
D. B. Read, Q.C. |
| Life of Alexander Mackenzie
Hon. G. W. Ross, William Buck-
ingham. | Life of Sir Leonard Tilley
James Hannay. |
| Life of Hon. W. H. Merritt
J. P. Merritt. | Life of Sir John Thompson
J. Castell Hopkins. |
| Life of Letellier de St. Just
P. B. Casgrain. | Memoirs of Bishop Burke
Archbishop O'Brien. |
| Life of Hon. Joseph Howe
George E. Fenety. | Life of Rev. Robert Burns
Rev. Dr. R. F. Burns. |
| Vie de P. C. de Maissonneuve
Rev. P. Rosseau. | Life of Colonel Fitzgibbon
M. A. Fitzgibbon. |
| Life of the Rev. Dr. Fyfe
Dr. J. E. Wells. | Life of Hon. R. Cartwright
Rev. E. C. Cartwright. |
| Vie de M. Faillon
L'Abbé Desmazures. | Vie de Mgr. de Laval
L'Abbé A. H. Gosselin. |
| Life of Bishop Medley
Rev. W. F. Ketchum. | Life of Senator Macdonald
Rev. Dr. H. Johnston. |
| Memoir of Bishop G. J. Mountain
Rev. A. W. Mountain. | Life of Rev. D. J. Macdonell
Prof. J. H. McCurdy. |
| Memoir of Rev. Dr. J. McGregor
Rev. G. Patterson. | Life of Rev. Dr. Mathieson
Rev. Dr. Jenkins. |
| Memoir of Rev. Dr. J. Bayne
Rev. G. Smellie. | Memoir of Rev. Dr. Wilkes
Rev. John Wood. |
| Biography of Hon. H. Mercier
J. O. Pelland. | Life of Samuel de Champlain
N. E. Dionne. |
| Vie de C. F. Painchaud
N. E. Dionne. | |

The most important of these works from an historical standpoint was Sir Joseph Pope's *Biography of Sir John Macdonald*. Taken in connection with the same writer's volume of *Confederation Documents* it threw much valuable light upon the growth of the Canadian constitution and the political records of the last half century. In Lower Canada a number of historical volumes of importance have been produced in the form of what may be termed religious biographies. Among these works, anonymous in their nature or compiled by the combined labors of the inmates of some religious establishment,

were the Lives of M^dle. Mance, La Soeur Bourgeois, M^de. D'Youville, Mère Marie Rose and the Bishop de St. Vallier. There has not been much of autobiography in Canadian literature. The strain of private and public labors upon the prominent men of the country was too great to permit of it. Sir Francis Hinks' *Reminiscences*, Dr. Egerton Ryerson's *Story of My Life*, *The Memoirs of P. A. de Gaspé*, Samuel Thompson's *Reminiscences of a Canadian Pioneer* were the chief early exceptions. In constitutional literature Canada holds a distinctive place. The names of Todd and Bourinot rank with the best of English writers upon this great subject. Two works by Dr. Alpheus Todd, C.M.G., entitled, respectively, *Parliamentary Government in England* and *Parliamentary Government in the British Colonies*, are still standard volumes of reference in English-speaking communities. Some of Sir John George Bourinot's constitutional works were of a similarly high character, while others were intended for popular use. Among them were the following:

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| Parliamentary Procedure and Practice | Federal Government in Canada (1889). |
| (1884). | Canadian Studies in Comparative |
| A Manual of the Constitutional | Politics (1890). |
| History of Canada (1888). | How Canada is Governed (1897). |
| Local Government in Canada (1888). | |

Other works upon the constitution of Canada in different phases of its development have been written by Chief Justice Sewell, of Quebec (1814), Fennings Taylor, the Hon. T. J. J. Loranger, the Hon. J. S. C. Wurtele, the Hon. C. C. Colby, Samuel J. Watson, Dr. D. A. O'Sullivan, Q.C., Joseph Doutre, Q.C., Edmond Lareau, J. R. Cartwright, Q.C., W. H. P. Clement and A. H. F. Lefroy. Before leaving this serious, solid and sometimes dull branch of our general literature a word must be said regarding the influence and work of Dr. Goldwin Smith. His books were always brilliant and nearly always controversial. During four decades they were mainly written in Canada, often published there, and always widely read in other countries. Yet it is difficult to term them a part of Canadian literature while it is equally impossible to eliminate the reputation of the writer from its historic record. Unlike Parkman, who was yet an alien in birth and residence and death, Dr. Goldwin Smith did not in his works, or in his countless contributions to the press and contemporary magazines, embody in any sense the spirit of Canadian history. Nor did he ever grasp the springs which moved the minds and directed

the policy of the Canadian people. After coming to Canada in 1871 he published, among many works, the following more important volumes:

Life of William Cowper (1880).	History of the United States (1893).
Lectures and Essays (1881).	Oxford and her Colleges (1894).
Conduct of England to Ireland (1882).	Essays on Questions of the Day (1896).
False Hopes (1883).	Guesses at the Riddle of Existence (1896).
Canada and the Canadian Question (1891).	The United Kingdom.
A Trip to England (1892).	Essays on Questions of the Day.

Turning to a lighter and brighter side of the general subject it will be found that romance has not held the place in Canadian literature which it should have done. Instinct as Canadian history is with myriad themes of romantic interest, it has yet remained to the last few years for Canadian novels and novelists to find their way into the hearts of the reading public. The French-Canadians were the first to realize the brilliant possibilities of fiction lying in the gloomy aisles of our primeval forests; amid the sunlit expanses of our rolling prairies or towering mountains; in the stirring and vivid pages of our national annals. Eugene l'Ecuyer, Patrice Lacombe, Joseph Marmette, P. A. de Gaspé, Gerin-Lajoie, P. J. O. Chauveau, Napoleon Bourassa, Jean Talon-Lesperance, Real Angers, each in turn contributed to the evolution of a romantic literature. But the public was limited and the appreciation not as pronounced as might have been desired. Perhaps the best of these volumes was *The Bastonnais* (1877), by Talon-Lesperance and *Jean Rivare*, by Gerin-Lajoie. In Upper Canada among the earliest efforts was Mrs. Moodie's *Flora Lindsay*. In 1886 appeared the Canadian story *An Algonquin Maiden*, by G. Mercer Adam and Ethelwyn Wetherald. In Nova Scotia Professor James De Mille published a number of stories which had a wide popularity in their day.

Professor Comant, by the Hon. L. S. Huntingdon, and *For King and Country*, by Miss Machar, of Kingston, followed, together with sundry novels and tales of Canadian life by Mrs. Leprohon, Miss Louisa Murray, Mrs. J. V. Noel, Mrs. Annie Rothwell Christie, Watson Griffin, Mrs. S. Frances Harrison, W. D. Lighthall, and others, which were usually published in the magazines or journals of the time. In later years clever short stories were written by the Rev. Arthur Wentworth Eaton, Majory MacMurchy, Maud Ogilvy, C. L. Betts,

the Rev. F. G. Scott, Stuart Livingston, Mrs. John E. Logan, Grace Dean McLeod Rogers, the Rev. W. H. Withrow, Miss F. G. Gwilt and F. Blake Crofton. W. A. Fraser won considerable reputation in this direction, while E. W. Thompson made a distinct mark by his *Old Man Savarin* and similar stories. But the central work of Canadian romance up to a very few years ago, and one which will hold a permanent place despite admitted faults of style, was William Kirby's *Le Chien D'or* (1877). This novel brought before the reader much of the early stirring life of French Canada and made Mr. Kirby the founder of a school of which Sir Gilbert Parker is the most famous exponent.

It was Sara Jeannette Duncan (Mrs. Everard Cotes), however, who in 1890 first really came before the reading world as a Canadian novelist, with her charming volume entitled *A Social Departure*. Other more or less popular works from her pen have since been steadily issued. Her example was followed in 1891 by Miss Lily Dougall, of Montreal, with *Beggars All*. A number of well-received volumes have since been written by Miss Dougall and been read far from the shores of her native land. Edmund E. Sheppard had meanwhile written three novels, notable for their clever character and dialect sketches: *Dolly*, *Widower Jones* and *A Bad Man's Sweetheart*. Grant Allen, a Canadian by birth, made himself generally popular by a number of novels, but as they in no sense touched Canada or Canadian life and history and were neither written nor published there, they can hardly be included in Canadian literature. So, in a great measure, with the works of Robert Barr ("Luke Sharpe") and those of Margaret M. Robinson, author of *Christie Redfern's Troubles* and other popular stories. Very different has it been with Sir Gilbert Parker. Intensely proud of his country and inspired to the point of enthusiasm by its picturesque and peculiar annals he has produced a series of novels which have not only made him famous in English-speaking countries but have illustrated Canadian history and adorned its native literature. The following are his chief works:

A Lover's Diary (Poetry).
The Wedding Day (A Drama).
An Adventurer of the North.
The Chief Factor.
The Trail of the Sword.
The Seats of the Mighty.
The Battle of the Strong.
The Ladder of Swords.

Around the Compass in Australia.
Pierre and His People.
The Translation of a Savage.
A Trespasser; Mrs. Falchion.
When Valmond Came to Pontiac.
The Pomp of the Lavillettes.
Donovan Pasha; The Weavers.
Cummer's Son; Northern Lights.

It is safe to say that the Canadian novel has now come to stay and that one of the most brilliant pages in the national literature has opened up to view. Charles G. D. Robert's *Forge in the Forest* was an early illustration of this fact. J. Macdonald Oxley in recent years won a high and deserved reputation as the "Henty" of Canada. Miss Joanna E. Wood in her *Judith Moore* and *The Untempered Wind*, wrote a pair of very creditable Canadian stories. Mrs. S. Frances Harrison in *The Forest of Bourg Marie*, produced a work which showed dramatic power and much descriptive skill, while W. D. Lighthall in his novel *The False Chevalier*, William McLennan in *Spanish John*, Edgar Maurice Smith in *Anerastes the Gaul*, Blanche Lucille Macdonell in *Diane of Ville Marie*, and Ralph Conner (Rev. Charles W. Gordon, of Winnipeg) in *Black Rock*, and others wrote stories which were a credit to the literature of the country. Mrs. Henshaw ("Julia Durham"), of Victoria, B. C., and Miss Marshall Saunders, of Halifax, N. S., have also, from the ends of the Dominion and three thousand miles apart, produced novels of considerable merit.

In poetry Canada has always deserved, though it has not always received, a high place. I must pass over the brilliant French school which in a fragmentary and somewhat journalistic way has conferred honor upon Canadian literature. The best early representatives of this school, in 1832-37, were F. X. Garneau, J. G. Barthe, G. Laviolette and J. E. Turcotte. These were followed by a multitude of clever young writers in romance and poetry and politics, most of their productions appearing in pamphlets or brilliant but ephemeral journals. A special word must, however, be said regarding Louis Honoré Fréchette, who received the laureated approval of the French Academy; who was honored by the late Queen with a C.M.G., and who was described by Professor Leigh Gregor, of McGill University, Montreal, as the acknowledged chief of French-Canadian litterateurs. Charles Heavysege, Charles Sangster, Alexander McLachlan, William Kirby, John Reade and Isabella Valancey Crawford, hold the highest place amongst the earlier poets of English-speaking Canada. Others of the middle of the century who must be mentioned were J. J. Proctor, Isidore, G. Ascher, Helen M. Johnson, Jennie E. Haight, Harriet Annie Wilkins, Pamela S. Vining, William Wye Smith, Annie L. Walker, Rev. Edward Hartley Dewart, Professor E. J. Chapman, Evan McColl, George Martin, Mrs. Susanna Moodie,

John F. McDonnell, Rhoda Ann Page (Mrs. Faulkner), William Pittman Lett.

New Brunswick poets of an earlier day were the Hon. Jonathan O'Dell and William Murdoch. Magnus Sabiston, of St. John, also wrote some clever verse and James De Mille found time amidst his novel writing for the publishing of some excellent poetry. So in Nova Scotia, with Oliver Goldsmith, James Hogg, John McPherson, Thomas Knight and C. M. DesBrisay. Of Heavyege's *Saul* the "North British Review" of August, 1858, declared that it was "Undoubtedly one of the most remarkable English poems ever written outside of Great Britain." Among English-speaking poets of a later day in Canada, Roberts, Campbell and Lampman were easily first in popular esteem. It would be a difficult task to anywhere find more eloquently patriotic verse than some of Roberts' productions; more beautiful descriptive poetry than in Campbell's *Lake Lyrics*; or a more delicate witchery than in many of Lampman's fugitive pieces.

Apart from these poets, in the sense of popularity, but ranking with them in the power of his verse was Charles Mair. The day will surely come when his drama of *Tecumseh* will rank among the great literary productions of the country, not only in the library of the student or isolated critic, but in the minds of the people as well. Other Canadian poets of the past thirty years were very numerous, but their poetry of most unequal merit. John Reade, of Montreal, must be placed among the highest and best. The special qualities of his verse have been described as sweetness and culture. For popularity and grasp of poetic dialect Dr. W. H. Drummond held a very high place. Dr. Theodore H. Rand, W. D. Lighthall, A. H. Chandler and the Rev. C. P. Mulvaney, Kate Seymour Maclean, Arthur G. Doughty, Thomas O'Hagan, Rev. A. W. H. Eaton, John Henry Brown, J. A. Logan, Mrs. Blewett, Bernard McEvoy, Hereward K. Cockin and Mrs. S. A. Curzon published volumes of verse which deserved high commendation. Bliss Carman, a most charming and brilliant poet, has long since made his home in the United States and his verse has lost the Canadian color which it once possessed as in *Low Tide on Grand Pré* (1893).

Among the politicians the late Hon. Joseph Howe, Sir J. D. Edgar, the Hon. David Mills, Nicholas Flood Davin and, especially, the late T. D'Arcy McGee have written some excellent poetry.

Facts of this nature afforded a pleasant indication of growing national culture. R. F. Kernighan is well known by his *nom de plume* of "The Khan," and some of his poems are so redolent of the farm and country life of the people and so instinct with the spirit of the soil as to have not only met wide popularity but merited a permanent place in Canadian literature. Arthur J. Stringer is another Canadian who, in isolated poems of great merit as well as in stories and novels, has shown the possession of distinct power. Others who must be mentioned are T. Arnold Haultain, J. W. Bengough, Walter Ratcliffe, John Stuart Thomson, Helen M. Merrill, Arthur Weir, Phillips Stewart, J. A. Richey, J. E. G. Roberts, Mary Barry Smith, H. L. Spencer, Robert Reed, John Imrie, T. G. Marquis, A. M. Taylor, Francis Rye, John Lowry Stuart, H. R. A. Pocock, Mary Morgan (Gowan Lea), Annie Campbell Huestis, A. R. Garvie, George T. Lanigan, Barry Stratton, W. A. Sherwood, C. L. Barnes, C. D. Shanly, C. E. Jukeway, K. L. Jones, T. R. Ramsay, J. R. Newell, George Gerrard, E. W. Thomson, Mrs. J. C. Yule, Mrs. W. H. Clarke, J. E. Pollock, Stuart Livingston and Clara Mountcastle.

It is a far call from poetry to science and kindred subjects, but in the latter department of literature Canada has excelled even many older countries. Sir William Dawson, Sir Daniel Wilson, Dr. A. R. C. Selwyn, Dr. George M. Dawson, Sir William Logan, Dr. H. Youle Hind and Dr. T. Sterry Hunt have ranked high in the scientific world. Elkanah Billings, Prof. Henry How, Henry Poole, Prof. J. B. Cherriman, William Cowper, Prof. Henry H. Croft, George and James Barnston, the Rev. William Hincks and Prof. Charles Smallwood, were voluminous writers in their day on subjects ranging from geology to meteorology. Profs. John Watson and J. Clark Murray in philosophy; Mrs. Catherine Parr Traill, Prof. John Macoun, and Dr. Alexander Milton Ross in natural history; Professors George Lawson, James Fletcher and George U. Hay in botany, etc., won a distinct place. Horatio Hale, Dr. G. F. Mathew, Dr. R. M. Bucke, Prof. E. J. Chapman, Prof. B. J. Harrington, Prof. R. W. Ellis, Prof. R. Ramsay Wright, Dr. Robert Bell, G. C. Hoffman, Dr. William Saunders, F. D. Adams, Prof. D. B. Penhallow, Dr. E. Gilpin, Jr., Prof. W. H. Pike, Rev. Dr. C. J. S. Bethune, R. G. McConnell, Principal Loudon of Toronto University, Prof. H. T. Bovey, Prof. W. L. Bailey, H. M. Ami, Robert Grant Haliburton, Edward E. Prince, Dr. Neil MacNish and Prof. John Campbell all earned

high reputations for scholarship or original research and for publications connected with some branch or other of the field of science. A most important subject in Canada which may be referred to here is Forestry and the general question of preserving the forests of the country. It has been dealt with most fully and authoritatively over a long term of years and in many publications by the late R. W. Phipps, and by A. T. Drummond, Edward Jack, J. C. Chapais, H. B. Small and Sir Henri Joly de Lotbinière. In the interesting subject of Numismatics Stanley Clark Bagg and R. W. McLachlan have written much.

In legal literature some good work has been done in Canada. The late Sir J. J. C. Abbott on *Insolvency and Railway Law*, Sir J. D. Edgar and F. H. Crysler on *Insolvency Law*, C. O. Ermatinger and Thomas Hodgins on *Franchise Law*, J. A. Barron on *Conditional Sales*, E. Douglas Armor on *Titles*, Hon D. Girouard and Dr. J. J. MacLaren on *Bills and Notes*, W. D. McPherson and J. M. Clark on *Mining Laws*, Hon. R. A. Harrison on *Municipal Law*, C. M. Holt on *Insurance Law*, Henry Abbott on *Railway Law* and the Hon. H. E. Taschereau on *Criminal Law* have written authoritatively. Francois Joseph Cignet, P. G. Mignault, J. R. Cartwright, John Crankshaw, L. A. Audette, E. Lareau, G. S. Holmstead, C. H. Stephens, S. Pagnuelo, S. R. Clarke, Alfred Howell, A. T. Hunter, W. Howard Hunter, G. W. Wickstead, Sir J. R. Gowan, R. E. Kingsford, A. H. Marsh, Hon. Archer Martin, Hon. Michel Mathieu, Chief Justice Sir T. W. Taylor, Alexander Leith, Joseph Doutre, Judge MacLennan, Christopher Robinson, J. F. Joseph, R. Vashon Rogers, Henry O'Brien, Hon. T. K. Ramsay, Sir James Lukin Robinson, J. P. Foran, County Judges J. S. Sinclair and J. G. Stevens have all published volumes upon special branches of Canadian law or practice. Others who have written much, though in a less definite form, were Edward Carter and Dr. James Kirby, of Montreal; John King, C. R. W. Biggar and D. E. Thompson, of Toronto; Benjamin Russell, of Halifax, and R. Stanley Weir, of Montreal.

To ecclesiastical history and literature much has been contributed by Canadians, but only a few volumes of really first rank. Principal Grant in his *Religions of the World*, L'Abbé Auguste Gosselin in his *L'Eglise Du Canada*, Professor William Clark in his *Life of Savonarola*, Dr. William Gregg in a *History of the Presbyterian Church in Canada*, M. Faillon in his great work upon the annals of

Canadian Roman Catholicism, *L'Histoire de la Colonie Francaise*, have occupied high ground in a distinctly able manner. The foremost Methodist writer of the past has been Dr. Egerton Ryerson, and perhaps the best known one of the present is the Rev. Dr. Albert Carman. The most valuable historical work done in that denomination has been by the Rev. Dr. George H. Cornish, the Rev. George Playter, the Rev. Dr. John Carroll and the Rev. Dr. T. Watson Smith. The latter's *History of the Church in the Maritime Provinces* is of much value. The Rev. Dr. Mathew Richey wrote voluminously. The Church of England, in Canada, has produced many able writers, but few great literary works. Bishop Strachan and Bishop Bethune, of Toronto, Bishop G. J. Mountain, of Quebec, Bishop Hellmuth, of London, Bishop Oxendon and Bishop Fulford, of Montreal, Bishop Medley and Bishop Kingdon, of Fredericton, and Bishop Charles Inglis, of Halifax, have, in their time, written upon various ecclesiastical topics, the first named being one of the strongest controversialists in Canadian annals. Volumes of some value upon church history have appeared from time to time by the Rev. H. C. Stuart, Dr. T. B. Aikin, the Rev. A. Wentworth Eaton, F. C. Wurtele, Archdeacon Roe, Rev. Dr. John Langtry, and S. Herbert Lee. The Rev. Dr. John McCaul wrote upon religious as well as classical subjects. Presbyterianism has not been very productive in a literary sense, and its best known names are those of the Rev. Dr. James McGregor, Dr. Robert Burns, Dr. R. F. Burns, Dr. Alexander Mathieson, Dr. John Jenkins, Principal Grant and Dr. Gregg. Dr. William Cochrane wrote some interesting religious works as did Dr. William Ormiston. Dr. George Patterson and Prof. John Campbell were known in connection with various historical subjects, while Dr. John Laing wrote much on controversial topics of current importance. The Rev. Dr. Robert Campbell wrote a useful *History of St. Gabriel Street Church in Montreal*.

The literary productions of Roman Catholicism include the works of M. Faillon and l'Abbé Gosselin in particular and much of the historical and poetic literature of French Canada in general. Its influence upon the development of Canadian culture has been upon the whole distinctly beneficial. Bishop Jean Langevin, Archbishop O'Brien, Mgr. C. Tanguay, Mgr. Têtu, Dean Harris, Mrs. Mary A. Sadlier, Rev. J. M. Coffee, J. K. Foran, Rev. Æneas McDonell Dawson, Rev. Dr. J. R. Teefy, Rev. J. B. Dollard and Thomas O'Hagan

have largely contributed to the pages of Canadian Catholic literature. Miscellaneous writers who may be mentioned in connection with religious literature in Canada were the Rev. Dr. Joseph Wild, the Rev. Dr. Chiniquy, the Rev. Dr. John Carry, the Rev. Dr. T. E. Bill, the Rev. Dr. J. M. Cramp, Dr. R. A. Fyfe, Dr. Henry Wilkes, Dr. Abraham de Sola, the Rev. Dr. J. M. King. Professor William Clark, already mentioned, in many published lectures and essays proved himself one of the most cultured and scholarly of Canadian authors. Charles Lindsay in his *Rome in Canada* (1878) and in an earlier work upon the *Clergy Reserves*, assumed a strongly controversial position, but admitting this, the volumes were still of distinct interest and value.

In bibliography G. B. Faribault, Phileas Gagnon, William Kingsford, H. J. Morgan, W. R. Haight and C. C. James have done good work. In 1864 Dr. E. H. Dewart published a volume entitled *Selections from Canadian Poetry*. This was supplemented in Quebec in 1874 by Edmund Lareau with his *Histoire de la Litterature Canadienne*, in 1881 by Dr. L. P. Bender's *Literary Leaves*, and in 1889 by W. D. Lighthall's *Songs of the Great Dominion*. In this connection Sir J. G. Bourinot's work upon *Canadian Intellectual Development*, Miss J. E. Wetherell's *Later Canadian Poets*, Mrs. Frances Harrison's *Birthday Book*, L. H. Taché's *La Poesie Francaise*, William McLennan's volume of translations entitled *Songs of Old Canada*, Professor George M. Wrong's annual volumes reviewing Canadian historical publications and *Patriotic Selections* by the Hon. G. W. Ross were of value and interest. Turning to another line of literary work, reference must be made to a volume of great value written by James H. Bartlett dealing with the coal, iron and steel development of Canada. George E. Drummond and B. T. A. Bell have written largely on the same subject, while Prof. A. B. Wilmott has published a useful work on the *Mineral Wealth of Canada*. The late Charles F. Smithers, the late James Stevenson, George Hague, Sir Edmund Walker and Professor Adam Shortt, of Kingston, have written largely upon either the practice or history of banking in Canada.

In controversial literature the names of Bishop Strachan and Dr. Ryerson stand pre-eminent. Associated with them in the old days of pamphleteering activity were William Lyon Mackenzie, the late Chief Justice W. H. Draper, C.B., Sir John Beverley Robinson, Dr. William Dunlop, the Hon. R. B. Sullivan and the Hon. William

Morris. A little later came Sir Francis Hincks, the Hon. Isaac Buchanan, Ogle R. Gowan, T. D'Arcy McGee, the Hon. William McDougall, the Hon. W. H. Merritt, Sir A. T. Galt, John Sheridan Hogan and the Hon. Alexander Morris. In Lower Canada were L. J. Papineau, H. S. Chapman, D. B. Viger, Andrew Stuart, and, later on, Joseph Royal. In the maritime provinces the Hon. John G. Marshall, George R. Young and Pierce Stevens Hamilton wrote largely. In more recent years the late Sir John Christian Schultz, the Hon. Thomas White, the Hon. C. H. Mackintosh, L. G. Desjardin, the late John Maclean, the Hon. C. C. Colby, Sir David Macpherson, W. A. Foster, Q.C., the Hon. James Young and J. S. Ewart, Q.C., have written largely upon political subjects. In medicine Dr. Henry Howard, Dr. A. T. Holmes, Sir James Grant, M.D., Sir W. H. Hingston, M.D., Dr. James Bovell and Dr. Anthony Von Iffland have written much, while Dr. William Canniff's *History of the Medical Profession in Upper Canada* is of importance for reference.

There is a very large and increasing mass of general literature in Canada of books which can hardly be placed under distinct heads and yet ought to be mentioned in such a review as this. E. T. D. Chambers, by his descriptive works upon the sports and scenery of Quebec, F. Barlow Cumberland by his *History of the Union Jack* and J. W. Tyrrell in his popular *Across the Sub-Arctics of Canada* have earned a place in Canadian literature. J. Hampden Burnham has published a useful book entitled *Canadians in the Imperial Service*. The Hon. J. H. Gray wrote one interesting volume of a proposed *History of Confederation*, but never completed the work. The Hon. T. D'Arcy McGee wrote upon *Federal Governments* and, like everything which he treated, the result was attractive and most valuable. In 1898 there appeared a most useful work upon *Steam Navigation in Canada* by James Croil. Jehu Matthews in his *Colonist and the Colonial Question* (1872), published one of the earliest works of importance upon *Imperial Federation*. Oliver A. Howland, in his *New Empire*, afforded a most interesting review of the growth of existing Imperial conditions. Sir Sandford Fleming and Thomas C. Keefer, C.M.G., have written much upon questions connected with the material development of the country. Dr. George R. Parkin, C.M.G., wrote an eloquent volume upon *Imperial Federation*. His *Life and Letters of Edward Thring*, published in 1898, is, however, the most important of his literary works.

Among miscellaneous Canadian authors dealing with subjects not exclusively or mainly Canadian, perhaps the highest place should be given to Lieutenant-Colonel George T. Denison, whose *History of Cavalry* (1877), in competition with the works of officers from many countries, won a prize offered by the Emperor of Russia for the best work upon the subject. His *Modern Cavalry* (1868) had previously earned for him a distinct reputation. Upon general military matters in Canada Lieutenant-Colonel L. T. Suzor wrote much in the early sixties. A word must be said for the work of Hon. J. W. Longley, of Halifax, in the region of belles lettres. His little volume of essays entitled *Love*, published in 1898, reached a notable level of cultured expression. The various educational works of Sir G. W. Ross, of Toronto, were also of a high order, while his lectures on public topics have done much to promote a high view of the Imperial question.

Outside of Canada many Canadians have of late years distinguished themselves. Sir George Duncan Gibb, Bart., M.D., was a great medical writer; Sir William Osler is to-day one of the chief medical authorities of the United States and Great Britain; Dr. Beattie Crozier in London has won a high place in English science and literature; Montague Chamberlain is an American authority in the realm of natural history; the late Bishop Gillis of Edinburgh, was a voluminous writer on Roman Catholic polemics; Robert Barr, Grant Allen, Elinor Glyn, May Agnes Fleming and Stinson Jarvis have been, or are, well known in the world of novels; Ernest Thompson-Seton has become widely popular in the United States by his works dealing with wild animal life; the Hon. Charles Wentworth Upham has written standard works on local American history; John Foster Kirk has won eminence in the United States as an historian; Dr. George McCall Theal's is the most eminent name in the historical literature of Cape Colony. So with the names of Bliss Carman, Charles G. D. Roberts, Norman Duncan and A. J. Stringer, New York; E. W. Thomson, Boston, and Stanley Waterloo, Chicago. These latter appear to have maintained their Canadian affiliations and interests while rising in the field of international fiction or literature.

During the decade or so ending with 1912, a new and fruitful list of writers has arisen in Canada. In novels and romances Alice M. Jones, Jean N. McIlwraith, Wilfrid Campbell, Theodore Roberts, Margaret A. Brown, Vallance Patriarche, A. E. McFarlane, A. P.

McKishnie, Adelaide M. Teskey, Virna Sheard, Agnes C. Laut, R. L. Richardson, Dr. W. F. Grenfell, Kate Westlake Yeigh, Hampden Burnham, Prof. E. P. Leacock, R. W. Service, Rev. H. A. Cody, Marian Keith, A. R. Carman, Nellie L. McClung and Harvey J. O'Higgins have published volumes of merit. Certain authors sprang into wide popularity and recognition and their chief works may be tabulated in a few cases as follows:

W. A. FRASER

Thoroughbreds (1902).
The Blood of Lilies (1903).
Za-Zada Tale (1905).
Brave Hearts (1904).
Thirteen Men (1906).
The Lone Furrow (1907).

REV. R. E. KNOWLES

St. Cuthbert's (1905).
The Undertow (1906).
The Dawn of Shanty Bay (1907).
The Web of Time (1908).
The Attic Guest (1909).
The Handicap (1910).
The Singer of the Kootenay (1911).

L. M. MONTGOMERY

Anne of Green Gables (1908).
Anne of Avonlea (1909).
Kilmeny of the Orchard (1910).
The Story Girl (1911).
Chronicles of Avonlea (1912).

C. G. D. ROBERTS

The Kindred of the Wild (1902).
Barbara Ladd (1902).
Poems (1912).
Red Fox (1905).
The Heart that Knows (1906).
The Hunters of the Silence (1907).

MRS. ÉVERARD COTES

The Delightful Americans (1902).
The Pool in the Desert (1903).
The Imperialist (1904).
Set in Authority (1906).
Cousin Cinderella (1908).
The Burnt Offering (1911).

ARTHUR J. STRINGER

The Silver Poppy (1903).
Lonely O'Malley (1905).
The Wire Tappers (1906).
The Woman in the Rain and Other Poems (1907).
The Under Groove (1908).
Irish Songs (1911).

REV. C. W. GORDON—(RALPH CONNOR)

Glengarry School Days (1902).
The Prospector (1904).
The Doctor (1906).
The Foreigner (1909).
Recall of Love (1910).

In poetry there has of late been an abundance of material. Robert W. Service in his *Songs of a Sourdough* (1907) struck a new and popular chord of thought which was followed up with *The Ballads of a*

Cheechako (1909) and *Rhymes of a Rolling Stone* (1912), while his novel entitled *The Trail of '98* was published in 1910. R. J. C. Stead, of Manitoba, in *Empire Builders* (1908); *Prairie Born and Other Poems* (1911) and *Songs of the Prairies* (1911), produced verse of a ringing and rythmical nature which won prompt patriotic appreciation. Isabel E. MacKay, J. A. Tucker, Carroll Ryan, E. Pauline Johnson, Clive Phillipps-Wolley, A. J. Stringer, A. J. Lockhart, Duncan Campbell Scott, Dr. W. H. Drummond, Rev. Dr. F. G. Scott, Jean Blewett, J. D. Logan, Helena Coleman, Peter McArthur, T. R. E. McInnes, Rev. J. B. Dollard and W. M. McKeracher all produced poetry of a more or less high order. In history, the writer of this article published (1899) the pioneer *Encyclopædia of Canada*, a record in six volumes of Canadian conditions and history written by three hundred of the most eminent men in the country. Since 1900, also, he has published annually *The Canadian Annual Review of Public Affairs*, a study of events and conditions in Canada from ocean to ocean and in relation to other countries. In biography the most important publication has been the *Makers of Canada* series issued in 1903-8 as follows:

Egerton Ryerson	Lord Dorchester
Rev Dr. N. Burwash.	A. G. Bradley.
Lord Elgin	George Brown
Sir J. G. Bourinot.	John Lewis.
Joseph Howe	Bishop Laval
Hon J. W. Longley.	A. L. de Brumath
Papineau and Cartier	Count Frontenac
A. D. De Celles.	W. D. Le Sueur
Sir F. Haldimand	Sir John Macdonald
J. N. McIlwraith.	George R. Parkin.
Mackenzie, Selkirk and Simpson	Sir James Douglas
George Bryce.	E. R. Gosnell, R. H. Coats.
Wolfe and Montcalm	Lord Sydenham
Abbé H. R. Casgrain.	Adam Shortt.
Samuel de Champlain	W. L. Mackenzie
N. E. Dionne.	G. G. S. Lindsey.
John Graves Simcoe	Robert Baldwin
Duncan C. Scott.	Rev. Dr. N. Burwash.
Sir Isaac Brock	Sir L. H. Lafontaine
Lady Edgar.	E. P. Leacock.
Wilmet and Tilley	Sir Francis Hincks
James Hannay.	Sir J. G. Bourinot.

Other Historical Works 1902-12

TITLE AND AUTHOR

- | | |
|--|---|
| The Fight for Canada
William Wood | The Progress of Canada in the 19th
Century
J. Castell Hopkins. |
| The Talbot Régime
C. O. Ermatinger | History of Manitoba
D. M. Duncan. |
| The Story of the Canadian People
D. M. Duncan. | The Siege of Quebec (6 vols.)
A. G. Doughty, T. Chapais, E. T.
D. Chambers, G. W. Parmalee. |
| The Royal Tour in Canada
Joseph Pope. | Three Premiers of Nova Scotia
Rev. E. M. Saunders. |
| Old Quebec
Sir G. Parker, Claude Bryan. | History of the Catholic Church in
Western Canada
Rev. A. G. Morice. |
| The War of 1812
J. Hannay. | The Cradle of New France
A. G. Doughty. |
| The Tragedy of Quebec
Robert Sellar. | |
| Canadian Life in Town and Country
H. J. Morgan, L. J. Burpee. | |
| The Story of the Dominion
J. Castell Hopkins. | |

Biographical Works, 1902-12

TITLE AND AUTHOR

- | | |
|--|---|
| Lord Strathcona
Beckles Willson. | Father Lacombe: The Black-robed
Voyageur
Katharine Hughes. |
| Life of King Edward VII
J. Castell Hopkins. | Life of Sir J. B. Robinson
Maj.-Gen. C. W. Robinson. |
| Sir Wilfrid Laurier and the Liberal
Party
J. S. Willison. | Life of Archbishop O'Brien
Katharine Hughes. |
| Laurier et Son Temps
Hon. L. O. David. | Principal Grant
F. Hamilton, W. L. Grant. |
| Sir Oliver Mowat: A Biography
C. R. W. Biggar, K.C. | Speeches and Addresses
John Charlton. |
| Life of Archbishop Machray
R. Machray. | The Struggle for Imperial Unity
Colonel G. T. Denison. |
| Reminiscences of Goldwin Smith
(edited)
T. Arnold Haultain. | Life and Letters of James Wolfe
Beckles Willson. |
| Reminiscences of Sir R. J. Cartwright
Life of James Robertson
Rev. C. W. Gordon. | Speeches and Published Letters of
Joseph Howe
J. A. Chisholm. |
| Diary of Mrs. John Graves Simcoe
(edited)
J. Ross Robertson. | |

In conclusion let me say that national literature is not the product of an hour nor does its existence depend upon popularity. The personality of Homer is hard to trace yet he lives forever in his writings. So in the case of many Canadian authors, unknown by name to the masses of our people, who will yet live in history as part and parcel of the development of public thought through the influence which their works have had upon other minds better able to express their sentiments or historical views. Canadian literature is, and must be, a fact to all who look back of the ever-increasing volume of English-speaking books and ephemeral journals to the substantial sum total of Canadian works wrought out of the pioneer thoughts and lives and manners of our people—the natural products in their defects, and in their virtues, of the environment of the time. The literature of a country comes from within itself and must partake of the characteristics of the period. To meet this condition a writer does not require to have lived continuously in Canada, but he must embody Canadian ideas or accurately describe Canadian interests or affairs. And whether we look at Canada from the days of Charlevoix to those of Garneau and Kirby or of Fréchette and Parker, we cannot but see that there was always a growing literature, evolving gradually from an almost unnoticed condition into the final and full sun-light of national recognition. To-day the note of nationality—whether it be English-Canadian or French-Canadian in its local application and language does not matter so long as it rings true to the soil of our common country—is being struck, and with it comes a literature adequate to the whole range of Canadian progress and aspirations.

CANADIAN STATISTICS

This collection of statistics has been culled from the "Canada Year-Book," 1911, second series, and the "Census of Canada," 1911. A selection has been made of some of the most important tables, adapted to the purpose of making a comparison of conditions in Canada and other countries.

Chinese Immigration

Following a report made by Mr. Justice Murphy, Royal Commissioner appointed to investigate certain alleged Chinese frauds and opium smuggling on the Pacific coast, an Order in Council of May 31st referred from the Department of Trade and Commerce to the Department of the Interior all matters pertaining to Chinese immigration, the order taking effect from October 2d. By a further Order in Council of August 4th immigration officers of the Department of the Interior were made controllers of Chinese immigration under authority of R. S. 1906, c. 95, s. 6, ss. "B". The number of Chinese immigrants during the fiscal year ended March 31, 1912, was 6,584, compared with 5,320 in 1910-11, 2,302 in 1909-10, and 2,106 in 1908-9.—(*Canada Year-Book*, 1911, second series, p. xxx.)

Areas and Population

The number of occupied dwellings in the sub-districts of the Dominion in 1911 was 1,413,913, and the number of families 1,488,353, compared with 1,028,892 dwellings and 1,070,747 families in 1901. The average number of persons per dwelling in 1911 was 5.096 and per family 4.841, compared with averages of 5.220 per dwelling and 5.016 per family in 1901.

The area of Canada is given in the census tables of 1911 as 3,729,665 square miles of land and water, which is 15,909 square miles less than ten years ago. This is due in part to a reduction following the Alaska Boundary treaty and also to new map measurements. The population per square mile was 1.93 in 1911, and in 1901 computed on the same area it was 1.44. In Alberta the population was 1.47 per square mile in 1911 and in 1901 it was .28. British Columbia in 1911 had 1.09 per square mile and in 1901 only .50. Manitoba in 1901 had 3.46 per square mile and in 1911 it reached 6.18. New Brunswick increased during the same period from 11.83 to 12.61 per square mile and Nova Scotia from 21.45 to 22.98. Ontario's increase was nearly 1.30 per square mile, or from 8.37 in 1901 to 9.67 in 1911. Prince Edward Island in 1901 had a population of 47.27 and in 1911 it fell to 42.91. Quebec in the ten years has grown from 4.69 per square mile to 5.69, which is an increase of one per square mile as compared with 1.30 in Ontario. In Saskatchewan the increase has been from .36 to 1.95, and in Yukon and the Northwest Territories there have been large decreases.—(*Census of Canada*, 1911, vol. I, p. vii.)

Population of Canada, 1911

During the year the fifth census of Canada was taken as for June 1st. As the result the population was ascertained to be 7,204,838, an increase of 1,833,523, or 34.13 per cent, since the previous census of March 31, 1901. Tables I and II on page 2 of this volume of the Year Book give the distribution of the population by provinces and territories according to sex, with the totals of the previous census for comparison.—(*Canada Year Book*, 1911, second series, p. xxiv.)

Yields and Values of Field Crops, 1911

This table shows that a total area in Canada of 32,404,110 acres yielded in 1911 a harvest which, computed at local market prices, had a value of \$558,099,600. For wheat, Canada's principal cereal crop, the total production was estimated at 215,851,300 bushels, with a value of \$138,567,000, from an area of 10,373,958 acres. This is the largest wheat crop in the history of the Dominion both as regards area and total production. Except as regards flaxseed the areas in the table represent the totals of the schedules obtained from every agricultural occupier by the census of 1911, and the total yields are calculated therefrom according to the estimated yields per acre as returned by the crop-reporting correspondents of the Census and Statistics Office. The figures of 1911 possess therefore a greater degree of statistical accuracy than can be attributed to the estimates of 1908, 1909 and 1910, published on page xxiii of the Year Book of 1910, the latter being calculated from the areas as estimated by correspondents. It may, however, be mentioned that the area and yield of wheat in 1911 exceed by over 1,000,000 acres and by 65,861,000 bushels the estimate of 1910—(*Ibid.*, p. xxvi.)

Railway Statistics of Canada

According to the report of the comptroller of railway statistics the increase in the railway mileage of Canada for the year ended June 30, 1911, was 669, as compared with 627 in 1910 and 1,138 in 1909. Seventy per cent of the increase in 1910-11 was in the western provinces. The total railway mileage in actual operation on June 30th was 25,400, as against 24,731 in 1910 and 24,104 in 1909. There were in addition 1,577½ miles of railway in actual operation but officially regarded as still under construction.—(*Ibid.*, p. xxviii.)

Telephones

The report on telephones relates to 537 organizations with a total capitalization of \$40,043,982, of which \$21,527,374 are in stocks and \$18,516,608 are in funded debt. The gross earnings amounted to \$10,068,220 and the operating expenses to \$6,979,045. Equipment was represented by 302,759 telephones and 687,729 miles of wire, of which 576,713 miles are urban and 111,016 are rural. The total number of telephone employees was reported as 10,425 with a wage list of \$915,636. (*Ibid.*, p. xxix.)

Canadian Trade with Other Countries

The total foreign trade of Canada for the calendar year 1911 amounted to \$799,212,342, exclusive of coin and bullion, as compared with \$740,024,880 in 1910. Imports in 1911 amounted to \$502,641,115, as compared with \$444,610,449 in 1910, and exports to \$296,571,227, as compared with \$295,414,431

in 1910. Trade with Great Britain reached a total of \$260,717,743, as compared with \$248,768,284 in 1910. Imports from Great Britain in 1911 were \$113,299,422, as compared with \$108,272,427, and exports to Great Britain in 1911 were \$147,418,321, as compared with \$140,495,857 in 1910. Trade with the United States reached the total of \$456,396,070, as compared with \$383,173,805 in 1910. Imports from the United States were \$341,192,612, as compared with \$269,464,731, and exports to the United States were \$115,203,458, as compared with \$113,709,074 in 1910.—(*Canada Year Book*, 1911, second series, p. xxix.)

Increase in Prices of Commodities

Since the beginning of the present century a marked increase has occurred in the prices of commodities, an increase which is not confined to one country, but which is felt with more or less intensity throughout the civilized world. In 1910 the Labor Department published a special report by Mr. R. H. Coats on Wholesale Prices in Canada during the twenty years 1890 to 1909, and this has been since followed by similar reports on the prices of 1910 and 1911. In these reports prices are measured by means of index numbers based upon the average prices of from 230 to 261 selected commodities in the period 1890-1899. In 1890 the index number for 235 commodities was 110.3. From this date the course was downward until 1897, when the percentage figure was 92.2. Then occurred a sharp upward rise which continued with a slight fall in 1901 until 1907, when the figure reached was 126.2. Falling to 120.8 in 1908, a further rise occurred until last year, when the highest point yet reached was recorded, viz., 127.3. Thus wholesale prices in Canada during 1911 were 27.3 per cent higher than the prices of the closing decade of the nineteenth century.—(*Canada Year Book*, 1911, second series, p. xxxiii.)

Population.

TABLE I.—POPULATION OF CANADA BY PROVINCES ACCORDING TO THE CENSUSES OF 1911 AND 1901

Provinces	1911	1901	Increase	Increase, per cent
Alberta.....	374,663	73,022	301,641	413.08
British Columbia.....	392,480	178,657	213,823	119.68
Manitoba.....	455,614	255,211	200,403	78.52
New Brunswick.....	351,889	331,120	20,769	6.27
Nova Scotia.....	492,338	459,574	32,764	7.13
Ontario.....	2,523,208	2,182,947	340,261	15.58
Prince Edward Island.....	93,728	103,259	-9,531	-9.23
Quebec.....	2,002,712	1,648,898	353,814	21.46
Saskatchewan.....	492,432	91,279	401,153	439.48
Yukon.....	8,512	27,219	-18,707 ¹	-68.73
Northwest Territories.....	17,196	20,129	-2,933 ¹	-14.57
Totals for Canada.....	7,204,772	5,371,315	1,833,457	34.13

The rural population in 1911 was 3,924,328 and the urban population 3,280,444. In 1901 the rural population was 3,349,516 and the urban population 2,021,799. The increase of rural population in the ten years is therefore 574,812 and of the urban 1,258,645, which is 17.16 per cent for the former and 62.25 per cent for the latter.—(*Canada Year Book*, 1911, second series, p. 2.)

¹ Decrease.

TABLE II.—AREA AND POPULATION OF CANADA BY PROVINCES IN 1911 AND POPULATION OF 1901

Districts	Area in acres	POPULATION IN 1911				Popula- tion in 1901
		Male	Female	Total	Per square mile	
Canada.....	2,386,985,395 ²	3,821,030	3,383,742	7,204,772	1.93	5,371,315
British Columbia.....	227,747,200 ²	251,619	140,861	392,480	1.09	178,657
Manitoba.....	47,188,298 ²	250,056	205,558	455,614	6.18	255,211
New Brunswick.....	17,910,400 ²	179,867	172,022	351,889	12.61	331,120
Nova Scotia.....	13,713,920 ²	251,019	241,319	492,338	22.98	459,574
Ontario.....	166,951,636 ²	1,299,253	1,223,955	2,523,208	9.67	2,182,947
Prince Edward Island.....	1,397,991 ²	47,069	46,659	93,728	42.91	103,259
Quebec.....	225,198,561 ²	1,011,247	991,465	2,002,712	5.69	1,648,898
Saskatchewan.....	161,088,000	291,730	200,702	492,432	1.95	91,279
Yukon.....	132,528,640 ²	6,508	2,004	8,512	27,219
Northwest Terri- tories.....	1,229,878,400 ²	8,673	8,523	17,196	20,129

—(Canada Year Book, 1911, second series, pp. 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7.)

NOTE.—The totals of areas for Canada and the Provinces and Territories are as measured by a planimeter on the map, and embrace land and water; while those for districts are the totals of their respective subdistricts, excepting as may be indicated by footnotes where large areas are unsurveyed and unoccupied, and are land areas only.

TABLE III.—POPULATION OF CITIES AND TOWNS HAVING OVER 5,000 INHABITANTS IN 1911, COMPARED WITH 1871, 1881, 1891, 1901

Cities and Towns	Provinces	POPULATION				
		1911	1901	1891	1881	1871
Montreal ¹	Quebec.....	470,480	267,730	219,616	155,238	115,000
Toronto ¹	Ontario.....	376,538	208,040	181,215	96,196	59,000
Winnipeg ¹	Manitoba.....	136,035	42,340	25,639	7,985	241
Vancouver ¹	British Columbia.....	100,401	27,010	13,709
Ottawa ¹	Ontario.....	87,062	59,928	44,154	31,307	24,141
Hamilton ¹	".....	81,969	52,634	48,959	36,661	26,880
Quebec.....	Quebec.....	78,190	68,840	63,090	62,446	59,699
Halifax.....	Nova Scotia.....	46,619	40,832	38,437	36,100	29,582
London.....	Ontario.....	46,300	37,976	31,977	26,266	18,000
Calgary.....	Alberta.....	43,704	4,392	3,876
St. John.....	New Brunswick.....	42,511	40,711	39,179	41,353	41,325
Victoria.....	British Columbia.....	31,660	20,919	16,841	5,925	3,270
Regina.....	Saskatchewan.....	30,213	2,249
Edmonton.....	Alberta.....	24,900	2,626
Brantford.....	Ontario.....	23,132	16,619	12,753	9,616	8,107
Kingston.....	".....	18,874	17,961	19,263	14,091	12,407
Maisonneuve.....	Quebec.....	18,684	3,958

¹ By map measurement.² Population of the city municipality.

TABLE III.—POPULATION OF CITIES AND TOWNS HAVING OVER 5,000 INHABITANTS IN 1911, COMPARED WITH 1871, 1881, 1891, 1901—(Continued)

Cities and Towns	Provinces	POPULATION				
		1911	1901	1891	1881	1871
Peterborough.....	Ontario.....	18,360	11,239	9,717	6,812	4,611
Hull.....	Quebec.....	18,222	13,993	11,264	6,890	3,800
Windsor.....	Ontario.....	17,829	12,153	10,322	6,561	4,253
Sydney.....	Nova Scotia.....	17,723	9,909	2,427	1,480
Glace Bay.....	".....	16,562	6,945	2,459
Fort William.....	Ontario.....	16,499	3,633
Sherbrooke.....	Quebec.....	16,405	11,765	10,110	7,227	4,432
Berlin.....	Ontario.....	15,196	9,747	7,425	4,054	2,743
Guelph.....	".....	15,175	11,496	10,537	9,890	6,878
Westmount.....	Quebec.....	14,579	8,856	3,076	884	200
St. Thomas.....	Ontario.....	14,054	11,485	10,366	8,367	2,197
Brandon.....	Manitoba.....	13,839	5,620	3,778
Moosejaw.....	Saskatchewan.....	13,823	1,558
Trois-Rivières.....	Quebec.....	13,691	9,981	8,334	8,670	7,570
New Westminster.....	British Columbia.....	13,199	6,499	6,678	1,500
Stratford.....	Ontario.....	12,946	9,959	9,500	8,239	4,313
Owen Sound.....	".....	12,558	8,776	7,497	4,426	3,369
St. Catharines.....	".....	12,484	9,946	9,170	9,631	7,864
Saskatoon.....	Saskatchewan.....	12,004	113
Verdun.....	Quebec.....	11,629	1,898	296
Moncton.....	New Brunswick.....	11,345	9,026	8,762	5,032
Port Arthur.....	Ontario.....	11,220	3,214
Charlottetown.....	P. E. Island.....	11,198	12,080	11,373	11,485	8,807
Sault Ste. Marie.....	Ontario.....	10,984	7,169	2,414	780	879
Chatham.....	".....	10,770	9,068	9,052	7,873	5,873
Lachine.....	Quebec.....	10,699	5,561	3,761	2,406	1,696
Galt.....	Ontario.....	10,299	7,866	7,535	5,187	3,827
Sarnia.....	".....	9,947	8,176	6,692	3,874	2,929
Belleville.....	".....	9,876	9,117	9,916	9,516	7,305
St. Hyacinthe.....	Quebec.....	9,797	9,210	7,016	5,321	3,746
Valleyfield.....	".....	9,449	11,055	5,515	3,906	1,800
Brockville.....	Ontario.....	9,374	8,940	8,791	7,609	5,102
Woodstock.....	".....	9,320	8,833	8,612	5,373	3,982
Niagara Falls.....	".....	9,248	5,702	3,349	2,347
Amherst.....	Nova Scotia.....	8,973	4,964	3,781	2,274
Sorel.....	Quebec.....	8,420	7,057	6,669	5,791	5,636
Nanaimo.....	British Columbia.....	8,306	6,130	4,595	1,645
North Vancouver.....	".....	8,196
Lethbridge.....	Alberta.....	8,050	2,072
North Bay.....	Ontario.....	7,737	2,530
St. Boniface.....	Manitoba.....	7,483	2,019	1,553	1,283
Sydney Mines.....	Nova Scotia.....	7,470	3,191	2,442	2,340
Levis.....	Quebec.....	7,452	7,783	7,301	7,597	6,691
Oshawa.....	Ontario.....	7,436	4,394	4,066	3,992	3,185
Thedford Mines.....	Quebec.....	7,261	3,256
Fredericton.....	New Brunswick.....	7,208	7,117	6,502	6,218	6,006
Collingwood.....	Ontario.....	7,090	5,755	4,939	4,445	2,829
Lindsay.....	".....	6,964	7,003	6,081	5,080	4,049
Orillia.....	".....	6,828	4,907	4,752	2,911	1,322

TABLE III.—POPULATION OF CITIES AND TOWNS HAVING OVER 5,000 INHABITANTS IN 1911, COMPARED WITH 1871, 1881, 1891, 1901—(Continued)

Cities and Towns	Provinces	POPULATION				
		1911	1901	1891	1881	1871
Fraserville.....	Quebec.....	6,774	4,569	4,175	2,291	1,541
Yarmouth.....	Nova Scotia.....	6,600	6,430	6,089	3,485	2,500
Cornwall.....	Ontario.....	6,598	6,704	6,805	4,468	2,033
Barrie.....	".....	6,420	5,949	5,550	4,854	3,398
New Glasgow.....	Nova Scotia.....	6,383	4,447	3,776	2,595
Smiths Falls.....	Ontario.....	6,370	5,155	3,864	2,087	1,150
Joliette.....	Quebec.....	6,346	4,220	3,347	3,268	3,047
Prince Albert.....	Saskatchewan.....	6,254	1,785
Kenora.....	Ontario.....	6,158	5,202	1,806
Truro.....	Nova Scotia.....	6,107	5,993	5,102	3,461
St. Jean.....	Quebec.....	5,903	4,030	4,722	4,314	3,022
Portage la Prairie.....	Manitoba.....	5,892	3,901	3,363
Chicoutimi.....	Quebec.....	5,880	3,826	2,277	1,935	1,393
Spring Hill.....	Nova Scotia.....	5,713	5,178	4,813	900
Cobalt.....	Ontario.....	5,638
Pembroke.....	".....	5,626	5,156	4,401	2,820	1,508
Medicine Hat.....	Alberta.....	5,608	1,570
Strathcona.....	".....	5,579	1,550
North Sydney.....	Nova Scotia.....	5,418	4,646	2,513	1,520
North Toronto.....	Ontario.....	5,362	1,852
Welland.....	".....	5,318	1,863	2,035	1,870	1,110
Port Hope.....	".....	5,092	4,188	5,042	5,581	5,114
Cobourg.....	".....	5,074	4,239	4,829	4,957	4,442
Dartmouth.....	Nova Scotia.....	5,058	4,806	6,252	3,786

—(Canada Year Book, 1911, second series, pp. 7, 8, 9.)

TABLE VII.—SEX, CONJUGAL STATE, BIRTHPLACE, RACE AND RELIGION

Classes	1871	1881	1891	1901
Population.....	3,485,761	4,324,810	4,833,239	5,371,315
By sex—				
Male.....	1,764,311	2,188,854	2,460,471	2,751,708
Female.....	1,721,450	2,135,956	2,372,768	2,619,607
By conjugal state—				
Single.....	2,283,003	2,784,396	3,053,392	3,312,593
Married.....	1,085,376	1,380,084	1,588,055	1,833,043
Widowed.....	117,382	160,330	191,792	225,018
Divorced.....	661
By birthplace—				
Canada.....	2,892,763	3,715,492	4,185,877	4,671,815
British Columbia.....	32,275	37,153	60,776
Manitoba.....	19,590	56,430	110,742

TABLE VII.—SEX, CONJUGAL STATE, BIRTHPLACE, RACE AND RELIGION—
(Continued)

Classes	1871	1881	1891	1901
By birthplace (continued)				
Canada				
New Brunswick.....	245,068	288,265	300,621	317,062
Nova Scotia.....	360,832	420,088	433,696	442,898
Ontario.....	1,138,794	1,467,988	1,728,731	1,928,099
Prince Edward Island.....		101,047	106,103	105,629
Quebec.....	1,147,664	1,327,809	1,462,293	1,620,482
The Territories.....	405	58,430	60,850	65,784
Unorganized Territories.....				6,969
Not given.....				13,374
British Islands	486,376	470,906	477,735	390,019
England.....	144,999	169,504	219,688	201,285
Ireland.....	219,451	185,526	149,184	101,629
Scotland.....	121,074	115,062	107,594	83,631
Wales.....	4	4	4	2,518
Lesser isles.....	852	814	1,269	956
British possessions	9,696	7,329	12,517	15,864
Australasia.....				991
India.....				1,076
Newfoundland.....	7,768	4,596	9,336	12,432
Other possessions.....	1,928	2,733	3,181	1,365
Austria-Hungary.....	102			28,407
Belgium and Holland.....				2,665
China.....			9,129	17,043
Denmark.....				2,075
France.....	2,899	4,389	5,381	7,944
Germany.....	24,162	25,328	27,752	27,300
Iceland.....				6,057
Italy.....	218	777	2,795	6,854
Japan.....				4,674
Norway and Sweden.....	588	2,076	7,827	10,256
Rumania.....				1,066
Russia.....	416	6,376	9,917	31,231
Switzerland.....				1,211
Turkey and Syria.....				1,579
United States.....	64,447	77,753	80,915	127,899
Other countries.....	1,836	7,670	9,582	2,188
At sea.....	430	380	321	339
Not given.....	1,828	6,334	3,491	14,829
By race or origin ^a —				
British.....	2,110,502	2,548,514		3,063,195
English.....	706,369	881,301		1,260,899
Irish.....	846,414	957,403		988,721
Scotch.....	549,946	699,863		800,154
Others.....	7,773	9,947		13,421
Austro-Hungarian.....				18,178
Chinese and Japanese.....		4,383		22,050
Dutch.....	29,662	30,412		33,845
French.....	1,082,940	1,298,929		1,649,371
German.....	202,991	254,319		310,501

^a Not given.^b Not taken in 1891.

TABLE VII.—SEX, CONJUGAL STATE, BIRTHPLACE, RACE AND RELIGION—
(Continued)

Classes	1871	1881	1891	1901
By race or origin—(continued)				
Indians and half-breeds.....	23,037	108,547	127,932
Italian.....	1,035	1,849	10,834
Jewish.....	125	667	16,131
Negro.....	21,496	21,394	17,437
Scandinavian.....	1,623	5,223	31,042
Russian.....	607	1,227	28,621
Other races.....	4,182	8,540	10,639
Not specified.....	7,561	40,806	31,539
By religion—				
Adventist.....	6,179	7,211	6,354	8,058
Anglican.....	494,049	574,818	646,059	680,620
Agnostic.....	3,613
Baptist.....	227,898	275,291	302,565	316,477
Brethren*.....	15,375	8,831	12,911	12,316
Buddhists.....	10,407
Catholic, Greek.....	18	15,630
Catholic, Roman.....	1,492,029	1,791,982	1,992,017	2,229,600
Christian Scientist.....	2,619
Confucian.....	5,115
Congregationalist.....	21,829	26,900	28,157	28,293
Disciple.....	20,193	12,763	14,900
Doukhorbor.....	8,775
Evangelical.....	4,701	10,193
Friends (Quaker).....	7,345	6,553	4,650	4,100
Holiness (Hornerite).....	2,775
Jewish.....	1,115	2,393	6,414	16,401
Latter Day Saints (Mormon).....	534	6,891
Lutheran.....	37,935	46,350	63,982	92,524
Mennonite.....	21,234	31,797
Methodist.....	567,091	742,981	847,765	916,886
Pagan.....	1,886	4,478	15,107
Presbyterian.....	544,998	676,165	755,326	842,442
Salvation Army.....	13,949	10,308
Unitarian.....	2,275	2,126	1,777	1,934
United Brethren (Moravian).....	604	4,701
Universalist.....	4,896	4,517	3,186	2,589
Other sects.....	37,949	26,018	46,009	33,023
Not given.....	17,055	86,769	89,355	43,221

—(Canada Year Book, 1911, second series, pp. 14, 15.)

* Including Plymouth Brethren and Tunkers.

Manufactures

TABLE X.—STATISTICS OF INDUSTRIES OF CANADA, 1906

Kinds of Industries	No. of establishments	Capital	No. of wage earners	Wages for labor	Value of products
By groups.....	15,796	\$846,585,023	356,034	\$134,375,925	\$718,352,603
1. Food products....	5,012	89,880,145	45,520	12,025,927	173,359,431
2. Textiles.....	2,073	75,089,936	57,421	17,632,985	85,982,979
3. Iron and steel products.....	707	61,204,638	30,480	13,894,518	53,125,265
4. Timber and its manufactures...	3,099	151,773,435	80,252	29,483,625	112,494,072
5. Leather and its finished products	533	28,667,125	17,991	6,399,330	42,132,007
6. Paper and printing	907	49,138,352	19,960	8,654,294	33,738,772
7. Liquors and beverages.....	262	26,639,815	3,833	1,795,765	14,394,319
8. Chemicals and allied products....	188	16,385,396	3,373	1,282,822	15,703,306
9. Clay, glass and stone products..	749	25,282,960	13,526	5,042,700	13,986,000
10. Metals and metal products other than steel.....	577	104,852,998	20,490	10,873,161	50,828,968
11. Tobacco and its manufactures...	155	10,628,691	7,114	2,349,598	15,274,923
12. Vehicles for land transportation..	446	31,850,465	22,508	10,879,841	37,396,302
13. Vessels for water transportation..	78	3,496,009	1,839	783,995	1,943,195
14. Miscellaneous industries.....	825	169,897,164	30,389	12,713,976	66,294,869
15. Hand trades.....	185	1,797,894	1,338	563,388	1,698,195

—(*Canada Year Book*, 1911, second series, p. 29.)*Northwest Provinces*

TABLE XI.—HORSES, HORNED CATTLE, SHEEP AND SWINE IN THE PROVINCES IN 1906 AND 1901

Provinces and Districts	Horses	Milch cows	Other horned cattle	Sheep and lambs	Swine
1906.					
Northwest Provinces	682,919	384,006	1,560,592	304,531	439,048
Manitoba.....	215,819	170,543	350,969	28,975	200,509
Saskatchewan....	240,566	112,618	360,236	121,290	123,916
Alberta.....	226,534	101,245	849,387	154,266	114,623
1901.					
Northwest Provinces	340,329	244,216	698,409	182,616	200,375
Manitoba.....	163,867	141,481	208,405	29,464	126,459
Saskatchewan....	83,461	56,440	160,613	73,097	27,753
Alberta.....	93,001	46,295	329,391	80,055	46,163

—(*Canada Year Book*, 1911, second series, p. 34.)

TABLE XII.—FIELD CROPS OF 1900, 1905 AND 1906

Kinds of Crops	1900		1905		1906	
	Acres	Bushels	Acres	Bushels	Acres	Bushels
Fall wheat.....	947	20,505	52,669	1,110,067	85,199	2,225,281
Spring wheat.....	2,494,519	23,436,354	3,888,700	81,351,560	4,977,294	108,361,543
Oats.....	833,390	16,653,681	1,697,170	68,810,855	2,309,439	110,569,628
Barley.....	162,557	3,141,121	370,850	10,971,755	522,734	18,684,609
Rye.....	3,276	37,217	7,708	163,599	14,496	323,904
Flax.....	14,731	85,011	45,812	608,242	131,819	1,818,780
Potatoes.....	25,611	3,155,391	34,139	5,569,613	50,720	9,489,081
Other field roots..	2,164	462,042	4,410	710,356	8,028	2,081,932
		Tons		Tons		Tons
Sugar beets.....			2,792	19,907	4,369	32,075
Forage crops.....	60,496	90,852	64,680	105,828	49,656	123,022
Sown or cultivated hay.....		904,481	129,358	174,689	174,216	359,701
Native or prairie hay.....				2,630,313		

—(Canada Year Book, 1911, second series, p. 35.)

Trade and Commerce

TABLE XIV.—AGGREGATE TRADE OF CANADA BY COUNTRIES DURING THE FISCAL YEAR ENDED MARCH 31, 1911. INCLUDES COIN AND BULLION

Countries	Total exports	Total imports	Total trade
British Empire—			
Great Britain.....	\$136,965,111	\$110,586,801	\$247,551,912
Australia.....	3,925,592	512,918	4,438,510
Bermuda.....	477,466	9,025	486,491
British Africa.....	2,354,869	232,628	2,587,497
British East Indies, all other...	6,761	1,368,008	1,374,769
British West Indies.....	4,113,270	6,469,382	10,582,652
British Guiana.....	622,735	3,793,201	4,415,936
Straits Settlement.....	67,955	229,145	297,100
Hong Kong.....	521,890	599,448	1,121,338
India.....	59,808	2,777,334	2,837,142
Newfoundland and Labrador...	3,874,775	1,819,082	5,693,857
New Zealand.....	1,004,370	913,608	1,917,978
Other British Possessions.....	150,435	227,347	377,782
Total British Empire.....	\$154,145,037	\$129,537,927	\$283,682,964
Foreign countries—			
Alaska.....	\$471,990	\$238,304	\$710,294
Argentina.....	3,021,708	2,304,957	5,326,665
Austria-Hungary.....	156,931	1,347,565	1,504,496
Belgium.....	2,773,444	3,630,340	6,403,784
Brazil.....	1,032,829	924,047	1,956,876
Central American States.....	102,765	105,011	207,776
Chile.....	232,502	419,063	651,565

TABLE XIV.—AGGREGATE TRADE OF CANADA BY COUNTRIES DURING THE FISCAL YEAR ENDED MARCH 31, 1911. INCLUDES COIN AND BOULLION.—
(Continued)

Countries	Total exports	Total imports	Total trade
China.....	\$529,821	\$685,912	\$1,215,733
Cuba.....	1,845,169	1,055,654	2,900,823
Denmark.....	443,035	88,251	531,286
Danish West Indies.....	16,966	149,932	166,898
Dutch East Indies.....	2,551	1,818,083	1,820,634
Egypt and Soudan.....	14,044	34,931	48,975
France.....	2,782,092	11,755,403	14,537,495
Germany.....	2,663,017	10,087,199	12,750,216
Greece.....	135,347	453,647	588,994
Hawaii.....	142,767	25,809	168,576
Holland.....	1,397,019	1,840,915	3,237,934
Italy.....	379,270	1,021,805	1,401,075
Japan.....	619,989	2,425,638	3,045,627
Mexico.....	1,268,150	494,968	1,763,118
Norway.....	412,935	426,163	839,098
Panama.....	321,440	321,440
Peru.....	34,466	165,916	200,382
Philippines.....	58,305	38,301	96,606
Porto Rico.....	506,764	188	506,952
Portugal.....	88,088	187,006	275,094
Russia.....	1,175,444	266,280	1,441,724
Santo Domingo.....	31,335	843,831	875,166
St. Pierre and Miquelon.....	146,454	146,454
Spain.....	27,943	1,127,534	1,155,477
Sweden.....	108,983	281,857	390,840
Switzerland.....	22,673	3,149,787	3,172,460
Turkey in Europe.....	10,242	9,218	19,460
Uruguay.....	77,010	6,300	83,310
United States.....	119,396,801	294,415,202	413,812,003
Venezuela.....	32,995	90,839	123,834
Other foreign countries.....	568,044	793,757	1,361,801
Total foreign countries.....	\$143,051,328	\$342,709,613	\$485,760,941
Total imports and exports....	\$297,196,365	\$472,247,540	\$769,443,905

—(*Canada Year Book*, 1911, second series, p. 38.)

TABLE XV.—AGGREGATE TRADE OF CANADA, 1868-1911

Fiscal Year	Total exports	Total imports	Aggregate trade of Canada
1868.....	\$57,567,888	\$73,459,644	\$131,027,532
1869.....	60,474,781	70,415,165	130,889,946
1870.....	73,573,490	74,814,339	148,387,829
1871.....	74,173,618	96,092,971	170,266,589
1872.....	82,639,663	111,430,527	194,070,190
1873.....	89,789,922	128,011,281	217,801,203
1874.....	89,351,928	128,213,582	217,565 510
1875.....	77,886,979	123,070,283	200,957,262
1876.....	80,966,435	93,210,346	174,176,781
1877.....	75,875,393	99,327,962	175,203,355
1878.....	79,323,667	93,081,787	172,405,454
1879.....	71,451,225	81,964,427	153,455,682
1880.....	87,911,458	86,489,747	174,401,205
1881.....	98,290,823	105,380,840	203,621,663
1882.....	102,137,203	119,419,500	221,556,703
1883.....	98,085,804	132,254,022	230,339,826
1884.....	91,406,496	116,397,043	207,803,539
1885.....	89,238,361	108,941,486	198,179,847
1886.....	85,251,314	104,424,561	189,675,875
1887.....	89,515,811	112,892,236	202,408,047
1888.....	90,203,000	110,894,630	201,097,630
1889.....	89,189,167	115,224,931	204,414,098
1890.....	96,749,149	121,858,241	218,607,390
1891.....	98,417,296	119,967,638	218,384,934
1892.....	113,963,375	127,406,068	241,369,443
1893.....	118,564,352	129,074,268	247,638,620
1894.....	117,524,949	123,474,940	240,999,889
1895.....	113,638,803	110,781,682	224,420,485
1896.....	121,013,852	118,011,508	239,025,360
1897.....	137,950,253	119,218,609	257,168,862
1898.....	164,152,683	140,323,053	304,475,736
1899.....	158,896,905	162,764,308	321,661,213
1900.....	191,894,723	189,622,513	381,517,236
1901.....	196,487,632	190,415,525	386,903,157
1902.....	211,640,286	212,270,158	423,910,444
1903.....	225,849,724	241,214,961	467,064,685
1904.....	213,521,235	259,211,803	472,733,038
1905.....	203,316,872	266,834,417	470,151,289
1906.....	256,586,630	294,286,015	550,872,645
1907 (9 months).....	205,277,197	259,786,007	465,063,204
1908.....	280,006,606	370,786,525	650,793,131
1909.....	261,512,159	309,756,608	571,268,767
1910.....	301,358,529	391,852,692	693,211,221
1911.....	297,196,365	472,247,540	769,443,905

—(Canada Year Book, 1911, second series, p. 39.)

TABLE XVIII.—EXPORTS OF CANADA TO BRITAIN, UNITED STATES AND
OTHER COUNTRIES OF MERCHANDISE THE PRODUCE OF CANADA
BY TOTAL VALUES IN THE 44 FISCAL YEARS 1868-1911

Fiscal Year	EXPORTS OF TOTAL MERCHANDISE THE PRODUCE OF CANADA TO			
	Britain	United States	Other countries	Totals
1868.....	\$17,905,808	\$22,387,846	\$5,249,523	\$45,543,177
1869.....	20,486,389	23,640,188	5,196,727	49,323,304
1870.....	22,512,991	27,398,930	6,169,271	56,081,192
1871.....	21,733,556	26,715,690	6,732,110	55,181,356
1872.....	25,223,785	29,984,440	7,735,802	62,944,027
1873.....	31,402,234	33,421,725	8,421,647	73,245,606
1874.....	35,769,190	30,380,556	7,777,002	73,926,748
1875.....	34,199,134	25,683,818	7,607,941	67,490,893
1876.....	34,379,005	27,451,150	8,031,694	69,861,849
1877.....	35,491,671	22,160,666	8,212,543	65,864,880
1878.....	35,861,110	22,131,343	7,747,681	65,740,134
1879.....	29,393,424	23,149,909	7,546,245	60,089,578
1880.....	35,208,031	26,762,705	8,125,455	70,096,191
1881.....	42,637,219	31,015,109	7,269,051	80,921,379
1882.....	39,816,813	41,687,638	8,538,260	90,042,711
1883.....	39,538,067	36,096,501	8,651,139	84,285,707
1884.....	37,410,870	31,631,622	8,089,587	77,132,079
1885.....	36,479,051	32,618,593	7,085,874	76,183,518
1886.....	36,694,263	31,503,292	6,777,951	74,975,506
1887.....	38,714,331	32,273,033	6,976,656	77,964,020
1888.....	33,648,284	37,323,161	7,326,305	78,297,750
1889.....	33,504,281	36,449,288	7,248,235	77,201,804
1890.....	41,499,149	33,291,207	7,545,158	82,335,514
1891.....	43,243,784	34,829,436	7,684,524	85,757,744
1892.....	54,949,055	31,317,857	9,417,341	95,684,253
1893.....	58,409,606	33,813,802	9,783,082	102,006,490
1894.....	60,878,056	29,297,598	10,411,199	100,586,853
1895.....	57,903,564	32,303,773	9,321,014	99,528,351
1896.....	62,717,941	34,460,428	9,200,383	106,378,752
1897.....	69,533,852	39,717,057	10,434,501	119,685,410
1898.....	93,065,019	34,361,795	12,494,118	139,920,932
1899.....	85,113,681	34,766,955	12,920,626	132,801,262
1900.....	96,562,875	52,534,977	14,412,938	163,510,790
1901.....	92,857,525	67,983,673	16,590,188	177,431,386
1902.....	109,347,345	66,567,784	20,104,634	196,019,763
1903.....	125,199,980	67,766,367	21,435,327	214,401,674
1904.....	110,120,892	66,856,885	21,436,662	198,414,439
1905.....	97,114,867	70,426,765	23,313,314	190,854,946
1906.....	127,456,465	83,546,306	24,481,185	235,483,956
1907 (9 months)...	98,691,186	62,257,299	19,596,821	180,545,306
1908.....	126,194,124	90,814,871	29,951,973	246,960,968
1909.....	126,384,724	85,334,806	30,884,054	242,603,584
1910.....	139,482,945	104,199,675	35,564,931	279,247,551
1911.....	136,962,971	142,208,676	40,828,563	290,000,210
Totals for 44 years	\$2,731,699,113	\$1,920,525,195	\$560,329,235	\$5,212,553,543

—(*Canada Year Book*, 1911, second series, p. 49.)

TABLE XIX.—IMPORTS OF CANADA BY VALUES ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION
FROM BRITAIN AND UNITED STATES IN THE 44 FISCAL YEARS 1868-1911.
EXCLUSIVE OF COIN AND BULLION

Fiscal Year	FROM BRITAIN			FROM UNITED STATES		
	Dutiable	Free	Duties collected	Dutiable	Free	Duties collected
1868.....	\$28,284,194	\$9,333,131	\$10,014,304	\$12,645,828
1869.....	28,483,645	7,013,119	\$4,799,758	7,793,748	13,703,632	\$1,565,566
1870.....	30,022,948	7,514,147	5,037,440	8,698,845	12,998,392	1,700,252
1871.....	39,815,550	8,682,652	6,544,088	14,085,383	13,100,203	2,290,881
1872.....	48,197,337	14,011,917	7,908,152	13,271,042	20,470,953	2,385,592
1873.....	47,443,203	20,553,742	7,392,957	16,678,805	28,510,305	2,945,966
1874.....	47,794,745	13,629,662	7,867,481	21,097,531	30,609,375	3,681,014
1875.....	48,949,803	11,059,281	8,881,998	22,312,546	26,617,812	3,853,634
1876.....	32,385,482	8,093,771	6,075,756	21,334,613	22,765,267	4,104,484
1877.....	32,916,776	6,414,845	6,377,596	23,510,846	25,865,162	4,393,511
1878.....	32,139,783	5,112,986	6,445,985	23,464,504	24,538,371	4,790,427
1879.....	27,075,553	3,892,223	5,561,933	23,803,457	18,366,849	5,524,879
1880.....	28,038,118	5,726,321	6,737,997	19,566,567	8,627,216	4,512,415
1881.....	35,860,461	7,024,681	8,772,950	25,632,313	10,706,388	5,649,152
1882.....	41,459,730	8,896,538	10,011,811	32,941,061	14,111,874	7,073,912
1883.....	40,732,476	10,947,286	9,897,785	38,652,045	16,495,198	8,148,268
1884.....	32,828,307	9,096,814	8,001,371	35,796,697	13,989,191	7,411,946
1885.....	30,702,359	9,329,089	7,617,249	31,231,947	14,344,563	6,624,100
1886.....	30,385,797	8,647,209	7,817,357	29,659,876	13,158,775	6,769,365
1887.....	35,766,273	8,975,077	9,318,920	30,570,609	14,225,299	7,268,195
1888.....	30,848,116	8,319,528	8,972,740	27,097,680	19,342,616	7,109,234
1889.....	32,219,807	10,031,382	9,450,243	28,982,283	21,047,136	7,371,148
1890.....	33,267,721	10,009,288	9,576,966	30,575,397	20,790,264	8,126,625
1891.....	31,447,660	10,571,283	9,114,272	29,790,402	22,243,075	7,734,515
1892.....	30,831,809	10,231,902	9,074,201	29,505,550	22,236,582	7,814,559
1893.....	31,869,267	10,660,073	9,498,747	28,562,050	23,777,746	7,636,076
1894.....	27,493,160	9,542,803	8,245,846	25,823,636	24,922,455	6,960,951
1895.....	23,311,911	7,747,421	7,006,677	25,795,538	24,383,466	6,897,395
1896.....	24,366,179	8,458,326	7,358,514	29,101,646	24,427,744	7,767,993
1897.....	20,217,422	9,183,766	6,205,367	30,482,509	26,540,833	8,147,075
1898.....	22,556,479	9,486,982	6,649,429	38,063,960	36,760,963	9,941,624
1899.....	27,521,508	9,409,815	7,328,192	44,471,824	43,995,349	11,713,859
1900.....	31,561,756	12,718,227	8,074,541	53,897,561	48,182,616	13,491,873
1901.....	31,701,654	11,118,341	7,845,406	53,600,278	53,549,047	13,311,750
1902.....	35,062,564	13,960,162	8,424,693	60,181,808	54,562,888	15,155,136
1903.....	42,210,165	16,582,873	9,841,627	68,538,323	60,251,914	17,069,881
1904.....	44,939,829	16,784,787	10,838,017	77,543,780	65,466,798	19,554,586
1905.....	45,099,527	15,243,177	11,171,010	78,797,440	73,634,186	20,580,302
1906.....	52,615,725	16,568,190	12,944,249	89,540,776	79,257,600	22,187,103
1907 (9mos).....	48,750,741	15,664,674	11,823,197	78,969,028	69,629,033	19,084,738
1908.....	71,212,207	23,205,107	17,265,293	110,361,367	94,287,518	27,132,543
1909.....	52,219,881	18,462,220	13,449,342	90,584,507	79,471,671	22,526,807
1910.....	71,822,941	23,513,486	18,032,629	118,834,173	98,668,242	29,515,836
1911.....	84,511,835	25,422,830	20,756,811	133,067,232	121,777,626	37,854,728
Totals.....	\$1,666,942,406	\$506,851,134	\$390,016,593	\$1,852,285,487	\$1,565,058,021	\$445,379,896

—(Canada Year Book, 1911, second series, p. 50.)

TABLE XXXV.—PERCENTAGE OF IMPORTS FROM GREAT BRITAIN AND UNITED STATES RESPECTIVELY TO TOTALS OF DUTIABLE AND FREE IN THE 44 FISCAL YEARS 1868-1911

Fiscal Year	GREAT BRITAIN			UNITED STATES		
	Dutiable to total dutiable	Free to total free	Dutiable and free to all imports	Dutiable to total dutiable	Free to total free	Dutiable and free to all imports
1868.....	64.78	39.82	56.06	22.93	53.96	33.77
1869.....	69.35	31.75	56.20	18.97	62.04	34.03
1870.....	66.52	34.50	56.10	19.27	59.69	32.43
1871.....	66.25	35.99	57.58	23.43	54.31	32.28
1872.....	70.59	38.20	59.27	19.43	55.81	32.14
1873.....	66.63	38.55	54.61	23.42	53.47	36.29
1874.....	62.69	29.03	49.87	27.67	65.19	41.97
1875.....	62.64	28.16	51.11	28.55	67.78	41.66
1876.....	53.76	25.08	43.75	35.41	70.53	47.67
1877.....	54.03	19.31	41.78	38.59	77.88	52.45
1878.....	53.76	16.69	41.21	39.25	80.13	53.10
1879.....	48.84	16.72	39.34	42.95	78.91	53.57
1880.....	51.74	36.43	48.30	36.11	54.88	40.33
1881.....	50.06	37.23	47.39	35.78	56.74	40.15
1882.....	48.34	35.04	45.30	38.41	55.58	42.33
1883.....	44.47	36.16	42.40	42.20	54.48	45.25
1884.....	41.02	35.03	39.56	44.74	53.88	46.97
1885.....	41.90	35.22	40.12	42.62	54.12	45.68
1886.....	43.00	34.13	40.66	41.97	51.94	44.60
1887.....	45.78	33.25	42.56	39.13	52.71	42.61
1888.....	44.29	26.81	38.90	38.90	62.34	46.13
1889.....	43.26	28.97	38.73	38.91	60.79	45.86
1890.....	43.15	28.95	38.75	39.65	60.13	45.99
1891.....	42.19	28.57	37.67	39.97	60.12	46.65
1892.....	44.58	22.24	35.66	42.66	48.34	44.90
1893.....	45.61	23.53	36.92	40.88	52.49	45.44
1894.....	43.79	20.61	33.96	41.13	53.84	46.52
1895.....	39.81	18.39	30.85	44.05	57.79	49.84
1896.....	36.24	22.19	31.15	43.28	64.07	50.80
1897.....	30.53	22.73	27.58	46.03	65.69	53.48
1898.....	30.23	18.35	25.36	51.00	71.13	59.24
1899.....	30.77	15.70	24.72	49.73	73.43	59.24
1900.....	30.25	18.66	25.66	51.65	70.69	59.17
1901.....	29.92	15.50	24.10	50.58	74.66	60.30
1902.....	29.54	17.94	24.95	50.72	70.11	58.40
1903.....	30.85	18.84	26.15	50.10	68.46	57.29
1904.....	30.18	17.73	25.34	52.07	69.14	58.71
1905.....	29.88	15.14	23.98	52.21	73.13	60.58
1906.....	30.40	15.03	24.42	51.74	71.90	59.59
1907 (9 months)...	32.05	16.04	25.79	51.93	71.28	59.50
1908.....	32.64	17.35	26.83	50.59	70.51	58.16
1909.....	29.84	16.31	24.52	51.76	70.20	59.00
1910.....	31.60	16.49	25.78	52.29	69.22	58.81
1911.....	29.89	15.04	24.34	54.14	72.05	60.84
Average for 44 yrs.	39.95	21.51	33.29	44.39	66.41	52.34

—(*Canada Year Book*, 1911, second series, p. 230.)

TABLE XXXIX.—VALUE OF GOODS ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION AT CERTAIN PORTS DURING THE FISCAL YEAR ENDED MARCH 31, 1911

Ports	Dutiable goods	Free goods	Totals
Brantford.....	\$2,252,690	\$1,473,671	\$3,726,361
Calgary.....	4,224,723	1,205,541	5,430,264
Dawson.....	568,903	313,100	882,003
Halifax.....	6,705,880	3,184,921	9,890,801
Hamilton.....	9,164,851	7,159,026	16,323,877
London.....	3,987,167	3,665,547	7,652,714
Montreal.....	70,788,508	40,636,297	111,424,805
Ottawa.....	4,508,457	3,206,040	7,714,497
Quebec.....	4,691,265	6,579,565	11,270,860
Sault Ste. Marie.....	4,170,780	2,759,342	6,930,122
St. John, N. B.....	3,901,500	3,830,744	7,732,244
St. Johns, Que.....	736,747	2,131,962	2,868,709
Sydney.....	1,051,418	1,119,695	2,171,113
Toronto.....	54,501,222	29,266,073	83,767,295
Vancouver.....	19,969,836	5,280,627	25,250,463
Victoria, B. C.....	4,739,397	1,320,027	6,059,424
Windsor, Ont.....	5,560,375	3,098,210	8,658,585
Winnipeg.....	24,647,623	4,892,938	29,540,561
Totals.....	\$226,171,372	\$121,123,326	\$347,294,698

—(*Canada Year Book*, 1911, second series, p. 235.)

TABLE XL.—VALUE OF EXPORTS OF CANADIAN PRODUCE BY PRINCIPAL PORTS DURING THE FISCAL YEAR ENDED MARCH 31, 1911

Ports	Value	Ports	Value
Abercorn.....	\$5,099,972	Quebec.....	\$6,936,439
Bridgeburg.....	11,549,360	Rossland.....	123,480
Coaticook.....	10,366,842	St. Armand.....	3,461,562
Fort William.....	12,275,017	St. Johns, Que.....	10,703,898
Halifax.....	12,156,019	St. John, N. B.....	21,248,951
Athelstan.....	3,427,681	Sault Ste. Marie.....	7,583,714
Montreal.....	64,388,515	Sydney.....	1,157,831
Naniamo.....	3,809,311	Vancouver.....	7,007,884
New Westminster.....	4,415,284	Winnipeg.....	497,164
Niagara Falls.....	21,817,175		
Prescott.....	8,292,400	Total.....	\$216,368,498

—(*Canada Year Book*, 1911, second series, p. 235.)

NOTE.—Under regulations which went into effect July 1, 1900, all export entries are delivered at the frontier port of exit, and the totals are credited to the respective ports where the goods pass outwards from Canada.

TABLE XLI.—VALUE OF MERCHANDISE IMPORTED INTO AND EXPORTED FROM CANADA THROUGH THE UNITED STATES FROM AND TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES DISTINGUISHING THE COUNTRIES WHENCE IMPORTED AND TO WHICH EXPORTED DURING THE FISCAL YEARS ENDED MARCH 31, 1910, 1911.

Countries whence imported and to which exported	MERCHANDISE IMPORTED THROUGH UNITED STATES		MERCHANDISE EXPORTED THROUGH UNITED STATES	
	1910	1911	1910	1911
Great Britain.....	\$10,047,989	\$8,379,152	\$39,986,459	\$40,447,265
Australia.....	20,460	14,749	2,009,137	1,697,978
British Africa.....		30,007	67,598	196,225
British India.....		770,922		49,728
British East Indies.....	1,427,282	632,432	39,893	3,977
British Guiana.....	429,878	873,382	52,885	38,372
British West Indies.....	783,867	330,185	705,897	1,378,808
New Zealand.....		7,713	601,863	303,755
Other British Possessions	35,476	100,660	189,800	245,212
Total British Empire	\$12,744,952	\$11,139,202	\$43,653,532	\$44,361,320
Argentina.....	\$1,077,489	\$643,368	\$1,255,538	\$1,895,136
Austria-Hungary.....	244,345	135,190	55,724	163,579
Belgium.....	583,791	263,633	259,019	208,444
Brazil.....	347,672	304,267	415,816	587,369
Central American States	65,998	22,063	158,299	312,066
Chile.....			46,718	100,095
China.....	103,168	45,039	16,976	10,160
Cuba.....	302,569	322,251	268,601	493,541
Denmark.....	31,212	48,574	373,487	277,919
Danish West Indies.....		92,400	14,408	13,704
Dutch West Indies.....		833	1,151	1,102
Dutch Guiana.....		6,431	36,799	43,048
French West Indies.....			18,165	6,436
Egypt and Soudan.....	12,550	13,522	20,605	11,554
France.....	2,027,160	802,794	260,386	616,764
French Africa.....	2,606	166	16,305	27,697
Germany.....	2,032,644	2,521,342	1,532,226	1,219,503
Greece.....	96,220	101,795	224	3,591
Hawaii.....	97	108	1,197	2,144
Hayti.....			7,924	29,382
Holland.....	207,595	116,031	821,445	469,255
Italy.....	346,724	382,981	320,247	358,938
Japan.....	176,512	111,966	6,835	9,354
Mexico.....	106,650	46,555	58,166	182,695
Norway.....	20,113	29,987	416,754	296,433
Peru.....			8,948	11,114
Philippines.....		495	4,663	2,479
Porto Rico.....	719		189,716	185,197
Portugal.....	10,137	10,077	26,205	19,118
Rumania.....		3,697	68,779	140,146
Russia in Europe.....	140,737	16,085	579,673	1,150,187
San Domingo.....	627,812	683,491	1,056	5,958
Spain.....	126,264	102,781	19,680	26,736
Sweden.....	65,757	77,671	53,978	61,984

TABLE XLI.—VALUE OF MERCHANDISE IMPORTED INTO AND EXPORTED FROM CANADA THROUGH THE UNITED STATES FROM AND TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES DISTINGUISHING THE COUNTRIES WHENCE IMPORTED AND TO WHICH EXPORTED DURING THE FISCAL YEARS ENDED MARCH 31, 1910, 1911—(Continued)

Countries whence imported and to which imported	MERCHANDISE IMPORTED THROUGH UNITED STATES		MERCHANDISE EXPORTED THROUGH UNITED STATES	
	1910	1911	1910	1911
Switzerland.....	\$569,131	\$97,294	\$6,321	\$9,171
Turkey.....	162,874	100,675	1,614	17,272
U. S. of Colombia.....	4,993	76,048	35,406	32,018
Uruguay.....	43,611	23,201	29,930
Venezuela.....	27,632	47,195	9,729	27,840
Other countries.....	233,293	31,452	13,254	17,198
Total foreign countries	\$9,754,464	\$7,301,749	\$7,425,238	\$ 9,076,257
Grand total.....	\$22,499,416	\$18,440,951	\$51,078,770	\$53,437,577

—(Canada Year Book, 1911, second series, p. 236.)

Inland Revenue

TABLE LXIII.—ANNUAL CONSUMPTION PER HEAD OF SPIRITS, WINE, BEER AND TOBACCO AND AMOUNT OF EXCISE AND CUSTOMS DUTIES PER HEAD, 1869-1911

Fiscal Year	CONSUMPTION OF				DUTY PAID ON			
	Spirits gals.	Wine gals.	Beer gals.	Tobacco lbs.]	Spirits	Wine	Beer	Tobacco
1869.....	1.124	0.115	2.290	1.755	\$0.761	\$0.037	\$0.092	\$0.193
1870.....	1.434	0.195	2.163	2.190	0.962	0.049	0.085	0.259
1871.....	1.578	0.259	2.490	2.052	1.059	0.056	0.095	0.336
1872.....	1.723	0.257	2.774	2.481	1.160	0.070	0.108	0.422
1873.....	1.682	0.238	3.188	1.999	1.335	0.066	0.120	0.350
1874.....	1.994	0.288	3.012	2.566	1.363	0.086	0.119	0.442
1875.....	1.394	0.149	3.091	1.995	1.127	0.069	0.114	0.428
1876.....	1.204	0.177	2.454	2.316	1.182	0.075	0.098	0.513
1877.....	0.975	0.096	2.322	2.051	0.949	0.057	0.109	0.446
1878.....	0.960	0.096	2.169	1.976	0.927	0.052	0.147	0.439
1879.....	1.131	0.104	2.209	1.954	1.005	0.057	0.125	0.449
1880.....	0.715	0.077	2.248	1.936	0.772	0.055	0.081	0.428
1881.....	0.922	0.099	2.293	2.035	0.990	0.073	0.081	0.443
1882.....	1.009	0.120	2.747	2.150	1.084	0.092	0.098	0.485
1883.....	1.090	0.135	2.882	2.280	1.186	0.097	0.103	0.473
1884.....	0.998	0.117	2.924	2.476	1.074	0.082	0.104	0.365
1885.....	1.126	0.109	2.639	2.623	1.198	0.074	0.111	0.393
1886.....	0.711	0.110	2.839	2.052	1.007	0.074	0.091	0.502
1887.....	0.746	0.095	3.084	2.062	1.045	0.066	0.100	0.514
1888.....	0.645	0.094	3.247	2.093	0.944	0.066	0.110	0.509
1889.....	0.776	0.097	3.263	2.153	1.107	0.068	0.114	0.529
1890.....	0.883	0.104	3.360	2.143	1.257	0.072	0.121	0.539

TABLE LXIII.—ANNUAL CONSUMPTION PER HEAD OF SPIRITS, WINE, BEER AND TOBACCO AND AMOUNT OF EXCISE AND CUSTOMS DUTIES, PER HEAD, 1869-1911—(Continued.)

Fiscal Year	CONSUMPTION OF				DUTY PAID ON			
	Spirits gals.	Wine gals.	Beer gals.	Tobacco lbs.	Spirits	Wine	Beer	Tobacco
1891.....	0.745	0.111	3.790	2.292	\$1.094	\$0.080	\$0.137	\$0.590
1892.....	0.701	0.101	3.516	2.291	1.156	0.075	0.211	0.680
1893.....	0.740	0.094	3.485	2.314	1.235	0.070	0.218	0.691
1894.....	0.742	0.089	3.722	2.264	1.235	0.060	0.205	0.683
1895.....	0.666	0.090	3.471	2.163	1.124	0.056	0.161	0.645
1896.....	0.623	0.070	3.528	2.120	1.159	0.047	0.164	0.639
1897.....	0.723	0.084	3.469	2.243	1.341	0.041	0.213	0.671
1898.....	0.536	0.082	3.808	2.358	1.306	0.041	0.126	0.615
1899.....	0.661	0.086	3.995	2.174	1.337	0.045	0.174	0.841
1900.....	0.701	0.085	4.364	2.300	1.455	0.044	0.185	0.853
1901.....	0.765	0.100	4.737	2.404	1.593	0.048	0.198	0.875
1902.....	0.796	0.090	5.102	2.404	1.653	0.048	0.214	0.915
1903.....	0.870	0.096	4.712	2.548	1.812	0.051	0.205	0.992
1904.....	0.952	0.096	4.918	2.765	1.985	0.051	0.225	1.042
1905.....	0.869	0.090	4.972	2.686	1.842	0.040	0.207	1.005
1906.....	0.861	0.091	5.255	2.777	1.800	0.050	0.228	1.053
1907 (9 months).....	0.947	0.092	5.585	2.953	1.972	0.053	0.249	1.276
1908.....	0.889	0.096	5.812	2.898	1.858	0.054	0.253	1.129
1909.....	0.806	0.085	5.348	2.910	1.681	0.047	0.225	1.032
1910.....	0.815	0.097	5.276	2.940	1.702	0.053	0.223	0.979
1911.....	0.859	0.104	5.434	3.011	1.801	0.053	0.233	1.048
Average of 43 years....	0.955	0.118	3.581	2.306	\$1.290	\$0.060	\$0.153	\$0.644

—(Canada Year Book, 1911, second series, p. 273.)

Banks and Banking

TABLE LXXI.—DEPOSITS OF CHARTERED BANKS IN CANADA AND ELSEWHERE, 1901-1911

Calendar Year	DEPOSITS BY THE PUBLIC IN CANADA		Deposits elsewhere than in Canada	Balances due to Dominion and provincial governments	Total deposits
	Payable on demand	Payable after notice or on a fixed day			
1901.....	\$95,169,631	\$221,624,664	\$26,560,444	\$6,218,588	\$349,573,327
1902.....	104,424,203	244,062,545	34,529,739	7,354,006	390,370,493
1903.....	112,461,757	269,911,501	34,931,701	6,862,181	424,167,140
1904.....	117,962,023	307,007,192	36,388,330	8,908,199	470,265,744
1905.....	138,116,550	338,411,275	44,325,531	10,390,120	531,243,476
1906.....	165,144,569	381,778,705	46,030,241	13,014,998	605,968,513
1907.....	166,342,144	413,014,657	58,828,181	16,654,729	654,839,711
1908.....	169,721,755	406,103,063	65,793,319	16,748,878	658,367,015
1909.....	225,414,828	464,635,263	70,788,822	22,459,967	783,298,880
1910.....	260,232,399	532,087,627	78,445,210	39,199,603	909,964,839
1911.....	304,801,755	568,976,209	72,823,733	33,832,091	980,433,788

—(Canada Year Book, 1911, second series, p. 277.)

Post Office

TABLE XCI.—NUMBER OF POST OFFICES IN CANADA AND ESTIMATED NUMBER OF LETTERS AND POST CARDS SENT 1868 TO 1911

Fiscal Year	Number of post offices	ESTIMATED NUMBER SENT OF			
		Registered letters	Free letters	Total letters posted	Post cards
1868	3,638	704,750	733,000	18,100,000	
1869	3,756	850,000	874,000	21,920,000	
1870	3,820	1,000,000	1,034,000	24,500,000	
1871	3,943	1,100,000	1,218,000	27,050,000 ²	
1872	4,135	1,280,000	1,125,000	30,600,000 ²	
1873	4,518	1,377,000	1,091,000	34,579,000 ²	
1874	4,706	1,562,900	1,432,200	39,358,500 ²	
1875	4,892	1,750,000	1,290,000	42,000,000 ²	
1876	5,015	1,774,000	1,059,292	41,800,000	4,646,000
1877	5,161	1,842,000	1,096,000	41,510,000	5,450,000
1878	5,378	1,980,000	1,250,000	44,000,000	6,455,000
1879	5,606	1,940,000	1,384,000	43,900,000	6,940,000
1880	5,773	2,040,000	1,464,000	45,800,000	7,800,000
1881	5,935	2,253,000	1,838,000	48,170,000	9,640,000
1882	6,171	2,450,000	2,390,000	56,200,000	11,300,000
1883	6,395	2,650,000	2,600,000	62,800,000	12,940,000
1884	6,887	3,000,000	2,824,000	66,100,000	13,580,000
1885	7,084	3,060,000	2,960,000	68,400,000	13,800,000
1886	7,295	3,400,000	3,310,000	71,000,000	15,109,000
1887	7,534	3,560,000	3,160,000	74,300,000	16,356,000
1888	7,671	3,580,000	3,500,000	80,200,000	16,586,000
1889	7,838	3,649,000	3,872,000	92,668,000	19,355,000
1890	7,913	3,280,000	3,870,000	94,100,000	19,480,000
1891	8,061	3,292,000	4,078,000	97,975,000	20,300,000
1892	8,288	3,286,700	4,606,000	102,850,000	20,815,000
1893	8,477	3,254,000	4,723,000	106,290,000	22,790,000
1894	8,664	3,237,200	4,925,500	107,145,000	23,695,000
1895	8,832	3,183,200	4,441,000	107,565,000	24,025,000
1896	9,103	3,505,500	4,808,800	116,028,000	24,794,800
1897	9,191	3,509,500	5,501,000	123,830,000	26,140,000
1898	9,282	3,534,500	5,673,250	134,975,000	28,153,000
1899	9,420	3,675,400	5,400,500	150,375,000	27,450,000
1900	9,627	4,312,000	6,318,000	178,292,500	27,130,000
1901	9,834	4,528,000	6,839,000	191,650,000	26,842,000
1902	9,958	4,973,000	7,411,000	213,628,000	26,343,000
1903	10,150	5,470,000	8,152,000	335,791,000	26,646,000
1904	10,460	5,986,000	8,819,000	259,190,000	27,178,000
1905	10,879	6,594,500	9,716,000	285,541,000	29,941,000
1906	11,141	7,475,000	10,922,000	323,644,000	33,674,000
1907 (9 months)	11,377	6,254,000	9,176,000	273,071,000	28,270,000
1908	11,823	9,078,000	13,207,000	396,011,000	40,664,000
1909	12,479	9,504,000	13,686,000	414,301,000	42,179,000
1910	12,887	10,465,000	14,975,500	456,085,000	45,105,000
1911	13,324	11,584,000	16,382,000	504,233,000	49,313,000

² Including post cards.

—(Canada Year Book, 1911, second series, p. 292.)

Telegraphs

TABLE CXXXIV.—STATISTICS OF CHARTERED COMPANIES, 1900-1911

Companies	Year	Miles of line	Miles of wire	Number of messages	Number of offices
Great Northwestern Telegraph Co.....	1900	18,290	34,810	2,623,257	1,466
	1905	11,775	44,573	2,755,543	1,360
	1906	11,920	45,031	2,739,612	1,335
	1907	11,720	46,937	2,904,221	1,303
	1908	11,505	47,054	2,810,458	1,228
	1909	11,386	47,483	2,749,378	1,227
	1910	11,134	50,092	2,907,494	1,183
	1911	10,726	50,568	3,812,159	1,194
Canadian Pacific Railway Co....	1900	9,505	37,112	1,900,000 ^a	996
	1905	10,669	52,096	2,262,158 ^a	1,343
	1906	10,892	57,651	2,735,960 ^a	1,182
	1907	11,208	62,458	2,897,299 ^a	1,235
	1908	11,856	65,508	2,802,216 ^a	1,310
	1909	12,108	69,398	3,004,943 ^a	1,340
	1910	12,257	76,758	3,431,493 ^a	1,372
	1911	13,386	87,703 ^a	3,921,477 ^a	1,424
Western Union.....	1900	2,922	8,682	437,157	218
	1905	2,620	10,106	542,155	217
	1906	2,578	10,347	548,299	219
	1907	2,589	10,518	537,981	220
	1908	2,591	10,518	520,092	221
	1909	2,638	10,605	534,210	222
	1910	2,639	11,244	551,764	217
	1911	2,598	11,599	572,081	219
Timiskaming and Northern Ontario Railway.....	1907	138	883	100,149	15
	1908	205	1,221	95,191	18
	1909	265	1,641	142,985	22
	1910	265	1,865	131,106	22
	1911	294	3,299	211,920	25
Algoma Central Railway	1908	130	174	8,648	4
	1909	130	174	3,148	4
	1910	130	174	3,639	4
	1911	214	517	4,497	6
Grand Trunk Pacific Railway...	1909	1,122	3,754	49,618	58
	1910	1,699	5,081	71,154	73
	1911	1,963	6,004	101,048	92
The North American Telegraph Co., Ltd.....	1907	44	886	51,475	80
	1908	44	886	49,314	80
	1909	44	763	49,127	61
	1910	44	783	38,015	63
	1911	44	783	40,508	62
Canadian Northern Railway Co.	1909	3,512	7,568	169
	1910	3,685	7,841	191
	1911	4,367	13,073	227
Transcontinental Railway.....	1911	313

—(Canada Year Book, 1911, second series, p. 337.)

^a Not including press messages.^b Including 962 miles of cables.

TABLE CXXXVI.—MILEAGE OF WIRE AND EARNINGS AND OPERATING EXPENSES OF TELEPHONE COMPANIES IN CANADA BY PROVINCES, JUNE 30, 1911

Provinces	MILEAGE OF WIRE			Earnings	Operating expenses
	Urban	Rural	Total		
Alberta.....	20,166	151	20,317	\$439,846	\$250,708
British Columbia.....	54,793	5,064	59,857	856,571	643,438
Manitoba.....	22	18,593	18,615	1,123,447	1,032,035
New Brunswick.....	13,725	7,107	20,832	318,992	195,156
Nova Scotia.....	1,156	22,718	23,874	415,154	313,854
Ontario.....	9,563	29,098	38,661	473,993	219,102
Prince Edward Island.....	1,000	1,250	2,250	33,602	26,321
Quebec.....	458,166	17,781	475,947	6,127,056	4,136,083
Saskatchewan.....	18,122	9,253	27,375	279,559	162,348
Totals.....	576,713	111,015	687,728	\$10,068,220	\$6,979,045

The number of telephones in use was 302,759.

The capital liability was \$40,043,982, divided as follows:

Stocks.....\$21,527,374
 Funded debt.....18,516,608

Total.....\$40,043,982

NOTE—The wire mileage credited to Quebec is the mileage of the Bell Telephone system, which extends to all the leading centers of Ontario. The return of the Manitoba Government did not make any distinction between urban and rural mileage, and the total was classified as rural.

—(Canada Year Book, 1911, second series, p. 338.)

Railways

TABLE CXXXIX.—RAILWAYS IN OPERATION 1835-1911

Year	Class of railway	Miles in operation	Miles increase	Year	Class of railway	Miles in operation	Miles increase
1835...	Steam...	1849...	Steam...	54
1836...	"	16	1850...	"	66	12
1837...	"	16	1851...	"	159	93
1838...	"	16	1852...	"	205	46
1839...	"	16	1853...	"	506	301
1840...	"	16	1854...	"	764	258
1841...	"	16	1855...	"	877	113
1842...	"	16	1856...	"	1,414	537
1843...	"	16	1857...	"	1,444	30
1844...	"	16	1858...	"	1,863	419
1845...	"	16	1859...	"	1,994	131
1846...	"	16	1860...	"	2,065	71
1847...	"	54	38	1861...	"	2,146	81
1848...	"	54	1862...	"	2,189	43

TABLE CXXXIX.—RAILWAYS IN OPERATION 1835-1911—(Continued.)

Year	Class of railway	Miles in operation	Miles increase	Year	Class of railway	Miles in operation	Miles increase
1863...	Steam...	2,189	1894...	Steam...	15,627	622
1864...	"	2,189	1895...	"	15,977	350
1865...	"	2,240	51	1896...	"	16,270	293
1866...	"	2,278	38	1897...	"	16,550	280
1867...	"	2,278	1898...	"	16,870	320
1868...	"	2,278	1899...	"	17,250	380
1869...	"	2,524	246	1900...	"	17,657	407
1870...	"	2,617	93	1901...	"	18,140	483
1871...	"	2,695	78	1902...	"	18,714	574
1872...	"	2,899	204	1903...	"	18,988	274
1873...	"	3,832	933	1904...	"	19,431	443
1874...	"	4,331	499	1905...	"	20,487	1,056
1875...	"	4,804	473	1906...	"	21,429	942
1876...	"	5,218	414	1907...	"	22,446	1,017
1877...	"	5,782	564	1908...	"	22,966	520
1878...	"	6,226	444	1909...	"	24,104	1,138
1879...	"	6,858	632	1910...	"	24,731	627
1880...	"	7,194	336	1911...	"	25,400	669
1881...	"	7,331	137				
1882...	"	8,697	1,366	1901...	Electric ¹⁰	553
1883...	"	9,577	880	1902...	"	558	5
1884...	"	10,273	696	1903...	"	759	201
1885...	"	10,773	500	1904...	"	767	8
1886...	"	11,793	1,020	1905...	"	793	26
1887...	"	12,184	391	1906...	"	814	21
1888...	"	12,585	401	1907...	"	815	1
1889...	"	12,585	1908...	"	992	177
1890...	"	13,151	566	1909...	"	989	-3
1891...	"	13,838	687	1910...	"	1,049	60
1892...	"	14,564	726	1911...	"	1,224	175
1893...	"	15,005	441				

NOTE—The statistics of railways are for the years ended June 30.

—(*Canada Year Book*, 1911, second series, p. 340.)

Marine

TABLE CLXXX.—SEA-GOING VESSELS ENTERED INWARDS AND OUTWARDS BY COUNTRIES, 1911

VESSELS ENTERED INWARDS

Countries whence arrived	BRITISH			CANADIAN			FOREIGN		
	No. of vessels	Tons register	Crew No.	No. of vessels	Tons register	Crew No.	No. of vessels	Tons register	Crew No.
Great Britain.....	1,250	4,843,277	123,784	66	76,579	4,484	61	71,936	1,136
Australia.....	27	101,946	4,054
British Africa.....	1	2,795	41	6	8,212	105
British Guiana.....	3	5,338	86	1	1,899	23
British West Indies.....	118	179,292	4,026	86	13,350	639	42	35,558	885
Newfoundland.....	659	212,676	11,762	281	89,478	3,255	171	272,190	3,994

¹⁰ Not including double track and sidings.

TABLE CLXXX.—SEA-GOING VESSELS ENTERED INWARDS AND OUTWARDS
BY COUNTRIES, 1911—(Continued)
VESSELS ENTERED INWARDS

Countries to which arrived	BRITISH			CANADIAN			FOREIGN		
	No. of ves-sels	Tons regis-ter	Crew No.	No. of ves-sels	Tons regis-ter	Crew No.	No. of ves-sels	Tons regis-ter	Crew No.
Belgium.....	22	94,806	1,518	2	3,757	45
Brazil.....	8	11,214	155	4	6,981	136	16	19,701	297
China.....	56	185,126	10,070
France.....	13	49,239	1,252	17	12,896	376
Germany.....	4	9,303	132	43	134,348	2,836
Holland.....	36	142,310	3,456	9	20,357	318
Italy.....	8	18,247	321	2	4,520	79	2	2,605	36
Japan.....	15	50,573	907	40	144,366	3,500
Norway.....	1	2,701	42	23	21,758	390
Portugal.....	1	330	8	1	850	17
St. Pierre.....	10	984	53	42	3,651	220	64	19,959	1,437
Spain.....	17	20,685	359	9	9,147	148	8	2,335	64
United States.....	1,209	1,121,294	60,555	3,046	1,339,371	65,488	4,397	2,110,429	84,453
Sea fisheries.....	253	20,220	4,822	1,507	77,276	17,207	1,411	113,376	27,037
Mexico.....	37	77,338	1,440	11	29,891	532
Other countries.....	38	57,877	1,932	33	4,981	222	48	60,011	1,510
Totals.....	3,786	7,207,571	230,775	5,076	1,625,334	91,878	6,373	3,086,434	128,991

Countries to which departed	VESSELS ENTERED OUTWARDS								
	No. of ves-sels	Tons regis-ter	Crew No.	No. of ves-sels	Tons regis-ter	Crew No.	No. of ves-sels	Tons regis-ter	Crew No.
Great Britain.....	833	3,184,404	93,174	11	48,139	2,294	125	158,237	2,410
Australia.....	52	179,519	4,867	4	8,416	95
British Africa.....	20	55,466	782	1	1,862	22	4	7,815	70
British West Indies.....	49	58,615	1,571	65	10,065	403	29	21,801	580
Newfoundland.....	569	206,878	9,145	356	126,547	4,530	186	279,837	4,093
Argentine Republic.....	7	15,885	183	6	7,331	83	47	62,944	811
Belgium.....	23	118,605	2,335	3	2,617	52
Brazil.....	9	1,991	66	1	249	7	7	8,437	116
China.....	42	135,327	8,618	2	5,322	52
Cuba and Porto Rico..	27	34,024	685	65	20,294	501	17	7,724	174
France.....	20	53,918	1,384	7	3,876	167
Germany.....	16	55,527	1,177
Holland.....	1	1,462	21	2	5,231	69
Italy.....	2	2,261	44
Japan.....	6	21,369	345	37	147,923	3,516
St. Pierre.....	24	1,843	126	53	4,533	262	45	16,759	979
Philippines.....	5	16,649	298
United States.....	1,026	1,230,901	50,413	3,171	1,388,783	70,122	3,783	2,158,190	82,588
Sea fisheries.....	283	22,407	5,752	1,787	96,070	20,759	1,731	139,722	32,649
Mexico.....	50	104,186	1,988	3	5,505	102	5	13,084	146
Other countries.....	38	61,317	2,019	12	7,286	103	42	50,194	1,241
Totals.....	3,084	5,504,766	183,772	5,531	1,716,664	99,188	6,094	3,156,417	131,029

—(Canada Year Book, 1911, second series, p. 376.)

TABLE CLXXXI.—BRITISH AND FOREIGN VESSELS EMPLOYED IN THE COASTING TRADE OF CANADA, 1907-1911

Vessels Arrived	1907 ¹¹	1908	1909	1910	1911
British—					
Steam.....No.	35,690	54,368	55,984	62,753	68,236
Tons register.....	13,212,481	21,314,515	22,295,771	23,816,666	28,205,713
Number of crew...	700,787	1,046,660	1,055,353	1,171,385	1,333,888
Sail.....No.	17,342	24,845	24,347	24,837	24,447
Tons register.....	1,977,120	3,781,927	3,742,621	4,725,048	4,889,332
Number of crew...	68,976	102,009	98,786	97,957	96,129
Foreign—					
Steam.....No.	822	1,198	1,217	941	673
Tons register.....	1,112,684	1,535,801	1,564,662	1,313,807	1,170,018
Number of crew...	17,982	26,333	28,084	21,082	17,185
Sail.....No.	603	601	157	175	46
Tons register.....	113,546	102,503	41,968	56,733	15,606
Number of crew...	2,105	1,964	802	1,085	474
Description of ves-					
sels—					
Steam, screw...No.	28,909	42,674	46,604	53,455	58,666
Steam, paddle. "	6,521	9,286	6,978	7,894	7,478
Steam, stern-					
wheel....."	1,082	3,606	3,619	2,345	2,765
Sail, ships...."	14	9	6	8	1
Sail, barks...."	53	43	20	25	9
Sail, barken-					
tines....."	13	24	18	19	9
Sail, brigs...."	1	1	2	2
Sail, brigantines....."	25	11	14	23	23
Sail, schooners "	13,917	18,417	18,183	17,142	16,846
Sail, barges, canal boats, etc. "	3,923	6,941	6,262	7,793	7,603
Vessels Departed					
British—					
Steam.....No.	37,000	47,846	48,970	56,533	63,330
Tons register.....	12,116,733	18,549,764	19,294,280	20,791,115	26,250,090
Number of crew...	610,690	918,250	921,000	1,018,985	1,246,632
Sail.....No.	16,943	24,814	24,219	25,051	24,245
Tons register.....	1,908,926	3,710,207	3,709,755	4,693,996	4,858,664
Number of crew...	69,007	99,003	92,627	98,154	92,060
Foreign—					
Steam.....No.	898	1,115	1,912	804	670
Tons register.....	1,156,070	1,456,650	1,965,839	1,300,465	1,208,372
Number of crew...	19,728	24,957	42,746	20,284	17,577
Sail.....No.	397	450	299	219	79
Tons register.....	93,860	78,468	55,302	53,098	30,139
Number of crew...	1,812	1,529	1,477	1,296	658

¹¹ Nine months.

TABLE CLXXXI.—BRITISH AND FOREIGN VESSELS EMPLOYED IN THE COASTING TRADE OF CANADA, 1907-1911—(Continued)

Vessels Departed	1907 ¹²	1908	1909	1910	1911
Description of vessels—					
Steam, screw. No.	32,338	38,857	41,278	49,043	55,112
Steam, paddle. "	4,786	6,500	5,274	5,948	6,115
Steam, stern-wheel. "	1,074	3,604	4,330	2,346	2,773
Sail, ships. "	9	8	8	10	4
Sail, barks. "	47	39	16	24	19
Sail, barken-tines. "	14	21	22	24	12
Sail, brigs. "	1	1	1
Sail, brigantines. "	17	12	13	23	19
Sail, schooners. "	13,460	18,433	18,144	17,088	16,621
Sail, barges, canal boats, etc. "	3,793	6,751	6,314	8,100	7,648

—(Canada Year Book, 1911, second series, p. 377.)

TABLE CLXXXIII. SEA-GOING SHIPPING ENTERED AND CLEARED AT CANADIAN PORTS, 1868-1911, WITH CARGO AND IN BALLAST

Fiscal Year	BRITISH		CANADIAN		FOREIGN		Total tonnage
	No.	Tons register	No.	Tons register	No.	Tons register	
1868.	13,911	3,457,113	2,105	862,208	4,319,321
1869.	16,311	3,811,405	2,940	1,185,160	4,996,565
1870.	15,863	3,942,392	2,652	1,142,481	5,084,873
1871.	16,562	3,916,322	3,366	1,199,771	5,116,093
1872.	16,151	4,356,661	3,614	1,381,564	5,685,144
1873.	16,870	4,323,003	4,727	1,762,532	6,085,535
1874.	12,191	3,945,822	5,562	2,105,539	6,051,361
1875.	11,075	3,571,803	4,530	1,757,405	5,329,208
1876.	2,595	1,896,603	8,554	1,634,333	5,614	2,379,828	5,910,764
1877.	2,963	2,216,516	8,955	1,897,094	5,842	2,531,212	6,644,822
1878.	2,954	2,294,688	8,847	1,928,531	5,715	2,461,165	6,684,384
1879.	2,618	2,155,444	9,296	1,736,310	5,087	2,196,796	6,088,550
1880.	2,990	2,642,935	10,219	1,794,210	5,161	2,349,569	6,786,714
1881.	3,707	3,526,005	11,103	1,865,612	5,952	2,712,720	8,104,337
1882.	3,335	3,164,839	11,355	1,892,290	6,448	2,879,433	7,936,562
1883.	3,403	3,001,071	11,291	1,886,166	6,814	3,085,540	7,972,777
1884.	3,327	3,257,219	11,796	1,880,993	7,220	3,346,089	8,484,301
1885.	3,219	3,007,314	10,512	1,588,894	7,461	3,048,407	7,644,615

¹² Nine months.

TABLE CLXXXIII.—SEA-GOING SHIPPING ENTERED AND CLEARED AT CANADIAN PORTS, 1868-1911, WITH CARGO AND IN BALLAST—(Continued)

Fiscal Year	BRITISH		CANADIAN		FOREIGN		Total tonnage
	No.	Tons register	No.	Tons register	No.	Tons register	
1886.....	2,960	3,101,285	11,405	1,783,623	7,006	3,159,663	8,044,571
1887.....	2,679	2,657,619	12,901	2,314,109	10,570	3,390,708	8,362,436
1888.....	3,316	3,326,417	13,828	1,862,295	13,663	4,009,091	9,197,803
1889.....	3,305	3,333,079	13,021	1,599,594	12,218	4,363,928	9,296,601
1890.....	3,671	3,617,013	13,695	1,708,939	13,758	5,002,333	10,328,285
1891.....	3,483	3,523,238	13,665	1,791,306	14,173	5,380,652	10,695,196
1892.....	3,402	3,586,335	13,720	2,085,187	13,839	5,081,452	10,752,974
1893.....	3,271	3,780,915	13,422	2,189,925	10,854	4,637,771	10,608,611
1894.....	3,381	4,146,645	13,780	2,334,081	11,179	4,799,810	11,280,536
1895.....	3,206	3,994,224	12,918	2,054,024	11,752	4,928,581	10,976,829
1896.....	3,226	4,385,055	13,462	2,141,272	13,114	4,932,497	11,458,824
1897.....	3,835	5,393,435	11,123	1,888,172	12,136	4,729,373	12,010,980
1898.....	4,121	5,777,068	12,142	2,029,745	11,524	4,778,672	12,585,485
1899.....	4,855	6,625,698	10,918	1,892,215	11,348	4,719,141	13,237,054
1900.....	4,707	6,728,799	11,427	1,918,320	12,412	5,528,002	14,175,121
1901.....	4,319	6,694,133	9,910	1,677,138	12,476	6,171,791	14,543,062
1902.....	4,363	6,865,924	11,413	1,937,227	14,530	5,928,337	14,731,488
1903.....	4,647	7,753,788	11,282	2,085,568	12,403	6,001,819	15,841,175
1904.....	4,997	8,045,817	11,045	1,979,803	14,002	5,801,085	15,826,705
1905.....	4,614	8,034,652	11,279	2,269,834	11,904	5,283,969	15,588,455
1906.....	5,104	9,059,453	12,201	2,304,942	12,511	5,479,034	16,843,429
1907 (9 mos.)	4,488	7,576,721	7,880	1,899,141	8,107	4,429,012	13,904,874
1908.....	6,356	10,329,515	10,562	2,606,660	12,886	6,555,096	19,491,271
1909.....	5,795	10,405,370	10,946	2,806,278	13,441	6,554,228	19,765,876
1910.....	5,780	11,038,709	10,857	3,498,361	13,147	6,267,243	20,804,313
1911.....	6,870	12,712,337	10,607	3,341,998	12,467	6,242,851	22,297,186

NOTE.—Canadian vessels were not separated from British in the years 1868-1875.

—(*Canada Year Book*, 1911, second series, p. 379.)

Immigration

TABLE CC.—ARRIVALS AT INLAND AND OCEAN PORTS IN CANADA IN FISCAL YEARS 1907-1911

Nationalities	1907 (9 mos.)	1908	1909	1910	1911	For 9 mos. ended December 1911
English.....	41,156	90,380	37,019	40,416	84,707	81,750
Irish.....	3,404	6,547	3,609	3,940	6,877	7,313
Scotch.....	10,729	22,223	11,810	14,706	29,924	29,694
Welsh.....	502	1,032	463	728	1,505	1,380
Total from U. K.	55,791	120,182	52,901	59,790	123,013	120,137

TABLE CC.—ARRIVALS AT INLAND AND OCEAN PORTS IN CANADA IN FISCAL YEARS 1907-1911—(Continued.)

Nationalities	1907 (9 mos.)	1908	1909	1910	1911	For 9 mos. ended December 1911
Armenian.....	208	563	79	75	20	43
Australian.....	185	180	171	203	266	158
Austrian.....	562	1,899	1,830	4,195	7,891	4,483
Belgian.....	650	1,214	828	910	1,563	1,238
Bukowinian.....	229	2,145	1,546	725	700	241
Bulgarian.....	179	2,529	56	557	1,068	1,516
Chinese.....	92	1,884	1,887	2,156	5,278	5,633
Danish.....	297	290	160	300	535	458
Dutch.....	394	1,212	495	741	931	891
Finnish.....	1,049	1,212	669	1,457	2,132	1,391
French.....	1,314	2,671	1,830	1,727	2,041	1,794
Galician.....	1,652	14,268	6,644	3,368	3,553	1,541
German ¹¹	1,889	2,363	1,257	1,516	2,530	3,866
Greek.....	545	1,053	192	452	777	544
Hebrew, Austrian.....	146	195	24	56	248	228
Hebrew, German.....	43	54	15	10	19	3
Hebrew, Polish.....	49	46	2	28	85	40
Hebrew, Russian.....	5,802	5,738	1,444	2,745	4,188	3,581
Hebrew, ¹²	544	1,679	151	343	606	453
Hindoo.....	2,124	2,623	6	10	5	14
Hungarian.....	499	1,307	595	621	756	313
Icelandic.....	46	97	35	95	250	201
Italian.....	5,114	11,212	4,228	7,118	8,359	5,720
Japanese.....	2,042	7,601	495	271	437	650
Newfoundland.....	1,029	3,374	2,108	3,372	2,229	2,502
New Zealand.....	30	70	65	82	116	54
Norwegian.....	876	1,554	752	1,370	2,169	1,472
Polish, Austrian.....	375	586	42	483	1,065	1,853
Polish, German.....	22	16	3	12	43	20
Polish, Russian.....	492	736	255	738	800	847
Polish, ¹³	144	255	76	174	269	548
Roumanian.....	431	949	278	293	511	663
Russian, ¹³	1,927	6,281	3,547	4,564	6,621	7,013
Ruthenian.....	303	912	149	568	2,869	10,342
Servian.....	4	48	31	76	50	161
Swedish.....	1,077	2,132	1,135	2,017	3,213	2,109
Swiss.....	112	195	129	211	270	194
Syrian.....	277	732	189	195	124	128
Turkish.....	232	489	236	517	469	389
U. S. (via ocean ports).....	89	133	94	186	203	127
United States.....	34,659	58,312	59,832	103,798	121,451	107,365
West Indian.....	64	134	113	146	398	298
Other nationalities.....	1,079	1,344	334	523	963	1,294
Total.....	68,876	142,287	94,007	149,004	188,071	172,379
Grand total.....	124,667	262,469	146,908	208,794	311,084	292,516

—(Canada Year Book, 1911, second series, p. 396.)

¹¹ Not elsewhere specified.

TABLE CCII.—IMMIGRATION FROM UNITED STATES TO CANADA AND ESTIMATED VALUE OF EFFECTS AND CASH, FROM JANUARY 1, 1906, TO JANUARY 1, 1912

Years	No. of Immigrants	Wealth per capita	Total value of effects and cash
Calendar year 1906.....	63,782	\$809	\$51,599,638
" " 1907.....	56,687	885	50,167,995
" " 1908.....	57,124	1,152	65,806,848
" " 1909.....	90,996	811	73,797,756
" " 1910.....	124,602	1,061	132,202,722
" " 1911.....	131,114	1,539	201,784,446
Total for six years.....	524,305	\$1,097	\$575,359,405

—(*Canada Year Book*, 1911, second series, p. 398.)

COMMUNICATION

FUNCTIONS AND NEEDS OF OUR GREAT MARKETS

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The trading pit organizations of boards of trade and chambers of commerce have come to function as crop-reporting boards as well as marts of trade. Unlike state and national crop-reporting boards, they are not local to their own country, but are also international in scope, taking account of acreages, crop conditions and harvested products of the entire world. And, unlike publicly-supported crop-reporting boards, they take into account demand as well as supply. They have more final functions than have public crop-reporting boards, because they crystallize the whole knowledge of conditions of supply and demand into actual daily prices.

These boards in the great commercial centers are, however, very inefficient reporters of crop conditions, in that they do not act as unbiased boards. The price figure which they decide upon is based only in part upon conditions relating to the supply and demand of the actual product and in part upon thoughts which grow out of the self-interest of the dealers in the ownership of margins on options and futures. The ownership of these margins, especially in case of exaggerated corners, gives such a bias to a portion of the members of these commercial price-making boards that their composite judgment is much warped.

These margins, risked on options and futures, sometimes aggregate many times more than the sum of the margins risked in the fluctuations on the price of the actual products bought and sold in the same market. In determining prices, the money at stake on "wind sales" takes a most prominent place by the side of actual changed conditions of acreage or of the development of the crop. In other words, mischievous factors arise to prevent the free action of the law of supply and demand, and the trading pit becomes an agency interfering with what would be the natural course of events in the commercial world. Associated with this fundamentally false element in these market organizations, numerous abuses arise.

Sometimes the trading pit, like a mob, is affected with collective hysteria, which then acts regardless of public interest, is demoralizing and even disgraceful in the eyes of the world.

Market trading in futures and in options is discussed by two schools of philosophy; one asserts that dealing in futures and options gives fluidity and acceleration to commerce and provides for hedging; that it enables producers, and especially manufacturers, to use all their capital in their immediate business; that it equalizes prices throughout the year to the manufacturers' advantage, by leaving the work of looking after fluctuations of price to financiers trained in speculative risks, thus placing the business of manufacture on a more conservative basis. They even claim that the machinery of the pit adds values to the actual product and thus creates new values; also that there are dangers in restricting this class of business by legislation, which claim, they assert, is proven by Germany's experience.

The other school asserts that too much fluidity and acceleration to business leads to frenzied finance, monetary panics, and business depression; that it destroys business confidence; and that it tends to center wealth in the hands of the few. This school calls attention to the fact that markets for sugar and some other products get on without dealings in options and futures, and that the efficiency of restrictive legislation has been demonstrated in southern states. They urge that bucket-shop dealing and the other forms of dealing in options and futures on a small scale are made possible by the large exchanges, where different classes of trade center. They assert also that those manufacturers, as a class, who do not hedge are more successful than those who do. And they give emphasis to the fact that these market organizations serve much the same purpose as did the Louisiana lottery, tempting weak men to their own ruin.

It may be safely asserted that this subject in its relation both to modern business and to the public welfare has not been comprehensively grasped by any one man or group of men. The intricacies of dealing in futures and in options are comprehended only by the few who are directly interested, and it is clear that they have not given due regard to the relations of these dealings to the general public nor to the many who, by speculation, lose their own financial status and while trying to get rich quick really plunge their families into the no-capital class.

It is clear that so many vital interests have come to depend upon markets for future delivery of commodities that a change to something better must be constructive rather than destructive. Therefore, to secure the greatest good for all concerned, reformative measures, it would seem, should preserve the best features in present methods of dealing while abolishing their excesses and glaring wrongs. Men trained to philosophic and dispassionate methods of scientific research and generalization, assisted by men of experience in our market practices, are needed to look broadly at the problem in all its essential details and to suggest constructive practices and devise restrictive and constructive laws which shall remedy existing evils. Plans for national and international commissions are none too broad for problems as comprehensive and as important as this.

Although dealing in futures does help oil the wheels of exchange and adds elements of conservatism, our speculative markets are great irritants and the ever-present menace of manipulation produces world market conditions at once nervous and unstable. The general feeling that there is a large element of the unreal, the selfish, the false, the wrong, the actually vicious in our general commercial markets prevents confidence and, broadly speaking, is very repressive to commerce. Correctives are needed to preserve the good and eliminate the bad from the whole situation.

It must be admitted that in making prices daily the great market performs a most comprehensive, highly important and necessary feat which no other known agency can perform. Crop-reporting agencies greatly assist, but only the trading mart can serve as the crucible in which prices current are evolved out of the conditions of supply and demand. In relation to the entire world product of any commodity, as of wheat or cotton, the markets assemble as much as they can of the facts available concerning the supply afforded by the previous crop, also concerning the raw and finished products in store and in transit; concerning the acreage and condition of growing crops and also concerning the present and prospective demand.

Thus, in case of wheat on May first, account is taken of the grain in the hands of the farmers, in country elevators and in terminal warehouses and mills. The acreage and condition of winter wheat and the acreage of spring wheat in the wheat-producing countries of the northern hemisphere are taken into account, as is also the amount of flour in store. The facts as to stores of wheat and

flour in stock, acreages of winter wheat planted in Argentina, Australasia and other southern hemisphere countries are sought. The prospective purchasing power of those who buy wheat, flour and bread is roughly determined from the industrial activities of the great wheat-buying nations.

And in determining the prospective demand for wheat, facts concerning the prospective demand for other commodities are secured. Even the relative supplies and prices of meats are taken into consideration in securing data to help determine the prospective supplies of wheat, because, with high prices for meats, the crops used to feed live stock compete with wheat for increased acreages and thus lower the wheat acreage and raise the price of wheat. To coordinate and average all these factors into one single price figure is an important and comprehensive task. Under present conditions this work is not accomplished in a manner to give occasion for pride. Our prices fluctuate unduly and there is more restlessness than is well for the producer, the manufacturer, the dealer or the consumer. Those fluctuations which arise from changes in natural conditions should be and can be smoothed down instead of being exaggerated.

The parties in the aggregate most fundamentally interested in our markets and market prices are the primary producers and the consumers. Manufacturers, transporters and dealers, including speculators, are likewise deeply concerned; also all other lines of business, including that of banking. Every one of these classes, excepting the speculators, is interested in stability, in the absence of wide fluctuation in prices.

The manufacturer and the dealer, in order to avoid the consequences of risking wide fluctuations, often use the market for futures to hedge, *i. e.*, to sell against their own purchases. In other words, they use the machinery of speculation to make their own business less speculative. The manufacturer sells for future delivery to responsible parties the same amount of raw product as he purchases for his factory or mill, thus pitting a speculative sale against the speculative risk in his purchase. In form this is speculation, but practically it is not gambling, so far as he is concerned. He often then at once sells his finished product for future actual delivery at a price which will cover cost of raw product, cost of manufacture and profit. He thus, by a double speculative deal, insures the cost of his raw material at a certain figure, and thus insures his net profits.

The other items of fixed cost of producing manufactured products being known, he can thus affix his prices to be charged and proceed with nearly perfect assurance of modest profits. With less of risk, as he thus stands between the producer of the raw product and the consumer of the finished product, his charge for manufacture is reduced, presumably (if it stood by itself) to the advantage both of the producer and the consumer.

Each class above named, excepting the successful speculator, is a contributor to the expenses of speculating establishments. The main loss, probably, falls not on the producer or the consumer, but on the very many small speculators who on the average lose, and on the occasional large speculator who loses. And these losers not only pay for a large part of the cost of office maintenance, telegraph and other expenses attached to the speculative business, but they contribute large sums to the coffers of the successful speculators. Wealth is constantly going from these losing classes, which need their money for the building up of small family estates to endow the mother of the nation's children. Part of this lost money goes to build up the swollen estates of those few who especially succeed at speculation or, as it may properly be called, speculative gambling. There is enough of the odor of wrongdoing to produce a bad moral effect, not alone on the participants, but on the community at large.

There are no adequate statistics as to the ultimate sources from which is drawn the money won by those speculators who are successful. The commission fees paid to commission merchants who negotiate margin sales and purchase for individuals, mainly outside the membership of the exchanges, are paid by the multitude of speculators who thus risk their money on margins. The same outside speculators also, on the average, lose in their wagers with the trained dealers who are on the ground and who often combine to carry through deals in which a "community of interests" helps them to assure to themselves winnings. As suggested above, these outside dealers may even lose so much that they help pay producers enlarged prices in time of corners that "bull" prices upwards. The fact that corners are not always premeditated, but naturally grow out of the system of option sales, does not make their evil effects less.

No one has the data to determine whether, on the average, trading in options and futures decreases the price received by pro-

ducers and increases the price paid by consumers or the converse. It is perfectly clear, however, that in the large the outside speculators and the producers and consumers among them lose money to a class of men who do not really pretend either to produce, to transport or to manufacture; and they also pay the expenses of running an expensive speculative machine.

A very rough estimate places the money received from the people by exchanges and their bucket-shop appendages in America alone at upwards of \$200,000,000 annually. On the face of it this seems a high price to pay for fluidity and acceleration to the market and for the opportunity of hedging. It would seem that these advantages cost the American people more money than they are worth, besides being obtained at the price of a business plan which seems to degrade our morals, as evidenced by reckless speculation and by the practices of many bucket shops. Or, to put it another way, it would seem that some plan could be devised which would give equal or better service at a fraction of the cost.

The report of Governor Hughes' Committee on Speculation in Securities and Commodities, made public in June, 1909, is a very useful contribution to this subject in that it gives numerous facts not hitherto available. The local character of this commission made it natural that the discussion would be somewhat provincial, not looking at the subject from a national standpoint, let alone from an international standpoint; nor from the point of view of the unity of interests of the brotherhood of all men. It vigorously points out abuses and evils, it rather weakly advises exchanges to "be good" and to advise their members who speculate to do so temperately. Its addition to the detailed facts as to the volume of speculative trading in commodities and as to the associated advantages and evils of dealing in options and futures makes of it a distinct mark for progression in the discussion of the subject. And no doubt it will contribute to the solution of this vexed question.

Before the Committee on Agriculture of the United States House of Representatives at the hearing on option dealing in cotton in 1910 it was estimated by a number of cotton dealers that on the New York Cotton Exchange 105,000,000 bales are sold annually. Since a bale, 500 pounds, averaging twelve cents per pound, is worth \$60, this gives an aggregate of \$6,300,000,000 represented in option sales of cotton. Sales of futures in wheat on the Produce Exchange

were shown of over 600,000,000 bushels, or stated in its equivalent at one dollar per bushel, \$600,000,000. The record of the Coffee Exchange shows a sale of 16,000,000 bags of 250 pounds each. This represents, at seven cents per pound, nearly \$300,000,000. Thus in these three commodities, the sales amount to over \$7,000,000,000.

Figures secured by the present writer several years ago indicated that about one-third of the cotton sales were then between member and member of the exchange; one-third between members of the exchange and outsiders, and one-third between one outsider and another outsider, the members in this last case acting as commission men only. The members charge outsiders $7\frac{1}{2}$ cents per bale commission, or, where the sellers and the buyers are both outsiders, the member receives a commission of fifteen cents per bale. Where the member buys of or sells to an outsider he literally charges the outsider $7\frac{1}{2}$ cents per bale for the opportunity to bet with himself, the trained dealer, on the future price of cotton, the dealer graciously using a portion of this fee to pay the expenses of the exchange. Now, for purposes of illustration, assuming that of the 105,000,000 bales 35,000,000 are transactions between outsiders, the members at fifteen cents will receive in commissions \$5,250,000. For the 35,000,000 of sales between members and outsiders, the members receive, at $7\frac{1}{2}$ cents per bale, \$2,625,000, making in all commission fees amounting to \$7,875,000. Since the membership is limited to say 500, this provides, on the average, \$15,750 per member, surely quite sufficient to pay expenses with \$5,000 to \$10,000 profit each.

It is probable that in the sales of 35,000,000 bales between members of the Cotton Exchange there is some eating of little fish by the big fish and allowing other little fish to enter the pond to take the place of those which were swallowed and to serve annually as food for the big fish who it is believed know how to consume the lesser fish. But the public has no feverish concern with the differences which exist among these costly appendages of trade.

As long as the irritation remains within the walls of the exchange, no systematic danger threatens the body politic; but in their buying and selling with outsiders arises inflammation which spreads outward and affects our most vital business institutions, and the homes which depend upon business for accumulative expenses and for the insurance against the rainy day. The 35,000,000 bales which members sell to or buy from outsiders at \$60 per bale represent

a value of \$2,100,000,000. Figures secured by the writer indicate that on settlement an average of about \$2.50 per bale, or one-half cent per pound, passes from the unsuccessful bettor to the successful bettor. On 35,000,000 bales the margins thus placed at risk would amount to \$87,500,000. Only estimates can be secured as to the proportions of the bets on futures on these commodities which are won by the members and by outsiders. Since estimates have run all the way from 60 per cent up to 85 and even 90 per cent, a very conservative estimate would seem to be 65 per cent. If the experienced members secure 65 per cent of the \$87,500,000, risked in the bets, or \$56,875,000, they receive back \$13,125,000 more than half of the \$87,500,000, or of the \$43,750,000 which they risked; and the outsiders lost this amount. Thus, at least for the purpose of illustration, it seems fair to roughly estimate that the outsiders pay to the members in fees \$7,875,000, and in winnings \$13,125,000, or a total of \$21,000,000.

Then the people at large are concerned also with the transactions among non-members. A goodly proportion of these trades are between speculators who are not members of the exchange and outsiders who bet in a small way. Some of these speculators operate in such an illegitimate manner that they could not secure election to membership, others are barred by the low limit to the number of members. Many of these speculators are far removed from the seats of the exchanges and are often organized for business in the form of what are commonly called bucket shops. This class of dealing is worst of all because so little under law or restraint. Estimates are well nigh useless here, because so little is known "outside the trade" on which to base estimates.

But, taking the estimate of \$21,000,000 above, for which the writer believes there is a fair basis, and to be more than conservative, assume that the smaller people lose another \$9,000,000 through dealing with speculators with business connections with the exchanges, or who assume to have such connection, and we have a total of \$30,000,000 lost, for the most part by the middle and poorer classes of people, on cotton dealing. Of the 12,000,000 bales of cotton produced in this country, we manufacture more than 4,000,000 bales, worth say \$240,000,000. In case of not more than \$100,000,000 of this we may estimate that there may be hedging. The wrong transference of \$30,000,000 in order that a group of manufacturers

may have the privilege of hedging, with their fellows doing nearly or quite as well without, is very costly.

There is evidence that the really large speculative dealing is in wheat on the Chicago market. Estimates made some years ago indicate that 90,000,000,000 bushels of grain sales were made annually in Chicago. Applying the same method of calculation to this as that used for cotton, and the figures lost by the small speculators on all commodities run into a few hundred million. Viewed as a matter of wealth distribution, produce and stock exchanges evidently change vast sums from the middle classes to certain rich speculators. They cause distrust and sometimes lead to industrial panics; but their worst feature is their inculcation of a lack of steady business honesty among people who yield to temptation to get something for nothing.

There is a growing demand that the methods of our markets which deal in futures and options should be investigated with that thoroughness which will provide a basis for corrective action. Of the fact that restrictive laws have the effect of stopping the excesses in sales of futures there is abundant evidence in results from the legislation of various south Atlantic states. Federal laws making illegal the dealing in options and futures have been proposed which have resulted in a beginning of a study of the intricacies of the problem. Those directly interested in dealing in options and futures have abundantly demonstrated that they have the advantage of having technical knowledge of the subject and of being able easily to center their arguments. Those not interested specifically, but concerned on principle, have not been so organized as to represent the public interest before legislative bodies either with an adequate grasp of the subject or with an aroused public will. Men who have proposed regulation cannot claim to have presented their side of the case as ably as the opposition to regulation has stated theirs. No doubt some of our universities have economists with abilities suited to attacking this problem. Some of the professors of commercial geography have collected many data as to the flow of commodities along the great highways of commerce which connect international markets, which would be useful to students of this subject. Minds able to investigate deeply, to master details, to appreciate great economic and moral interests, to give practical generalization and to coordinate constructively the

functions of public crop-reporting agencies and price-making markets are needed to evolve a general informational and marketing scheme for farm products.

If markets which provide for dealing in options and futures could confine these forms of trading to narrow limits, the manufacturer could hedge against his purchases, allowing some one else to carry part of this speculative risk; and others could take advantage of this amount of trading in futures and options as a sort of clearing house to facilitate trade. Simply to illustrate, if a law could be so framed as to confine speculative trading in a given market to quadruple the actual transference of product in that market, it might conserve a useful function by eliminating the great evil of unrestricted speculative movements and thus avoid the state of uncertainty which results from not knowing when speculative excesses will occur. If all deals in options and futures were required to be made public in order to be legal, this for all practical purposes might restrict speculative sales without abolishing these features which are useful in actual business.

It may be that the market organization, possibly under a state or national law, could place a prohibitive tax on all sales of options and futures beyond a limit which would be sufficient to permit all needed speculative sales, but would prevent gambling excesses. This would enable one set of men trained in financing the carrying of raw products to take care of much of the risk, thus relieving the manufacturer who, by hedging, could make his business less speculative. Possibly laws would be effective which would define the amount of trade in futures and options which would be considered speculation and the additional amount which would be considered gambling, with penalties on any market organization for allowing its members to exceed the legal limit. If the excess of sales of options and futures above a given number on a given market were declared by law to be gambling, market organizations permitting more than the limited amount of sales could be denied the use of the mails, telegraph, telephone, express companies and other common carriers. These specific suggestions are not given here so much with a view to offering a solution of this knotty problem as to illustrate the proposal that this subject is open to possible and practical suggestion, and that there is reason for the hope that some solution for the problem of our market excesses may be found.

That public crop-reporting agencies should be greatly amplified, especially in their world area aspects, so as more adequately to perform some of the functions now performed by the large markets seems clear. Publicity, at more frequent intervals, of acreages, conditions, yields, stocks in store and prospective demand might prove the safest and most efficient cure for fluctuations which come from speculation based on private crop reports.

Public establishments for providing statistics useful to trade are gradually coming into existence. In the United States basic work is done every fifth year by the United States Census Office, when the acreage, the total amount of farm crop products grown and the numbers of live stock are secured by an actual census count. Thus, in 1910, when census taking was under way, every farm in the entire country was visited, and acreages, quantities and other facts were secured concerning each farm crop of the previous year, 1909, and the number of each class of live stock was ascertained.

The Bureau of Statistics of the United States Department of Agriculture, during each succeeding year of the next five years, uses the census figures as a basis upon which to estimate changes in acreages and in numbers of live stock. These acreages, as ascertained by the census and the Bureau of Statistics, are used as bases upon which to estimate the conditions of the respective crops throughout the season, also the yield per acre, and to determine approximately the production per state and for the entire country. Thus, throughout the year the markets are kept informed as to acreage, progressive conditions of growth and quantities harvested. It must be admitted that the public generally makes little direct use of these reports, but relies almost wholly upon the interpretations of them put out by the great market centers in the form of current price figures.

The method of securing the information, of reducing it to figures representing averages and totals and of publishing the figures may be of interest. The Bureau of Statistics of the United States Department of Agriculture is the largest and most highly-organized department devoted to reports of current crop conditions supported by any country in the world. With a current expense fund of approximately \$150,000 annually for that purpose, it employs about fifty statisticians and clerks in the City of Washington and a third as many special traveling reporting agents outside of Washington.

A state agent in each state is also paid for part of his time; while nearly three thousand county correspondents and thirty thousand township and individual correspondents give voluntary service as crop reporters. There are thus received in the Washington office four classes of reports on each crop. The reports by states, from special traveling agents, each of whom has from one to four states, and those from the state agents are sent directly to the Secretary of Agriculture and are deposited in a safe until the crop-reporting board meets on crop-reporting day. The reports from the county correspondents and also those from the township correspondents are sent to the clerical force at Washington, where they are assembled and averaged by states and the summarized results, in fractional parts, are also placed in the Secretary's safe till the crop-reporting board is in session and ready to use them.

On report day the crop-reporting board, consisting of the statistician and four assistant statisticians and agents, receives the four classes of reports in a meeting behind closed doors. With the aid of clerks, the estimates from the different classes of correspondents are entered on sheets in four columns. Each board member is supplied with a copy and, working independently at a separate table, he resolves the four figures for the given crop for each state into a common figure and thus constructs a fifth column. The five columns of figures, one representing averages from each of the several members, are then all copied side by side on a single sheet and the board in session merges the judgment of its five members into single figures for each state. This is something more than averaging, because the board often has reasons for giving more weight to the judgment of one class of reporters than to that of the others; and there are at times other legitimate sources of information than that which comes from the four classes of reporting agencies.

When the hour set for announcing the figures arrives the board has its report worked out with national as well as state averages and totals, and manifold copies are made of a table of these figures together with a few brief paragraphs stating the leading facts as to the acreage and condition of each crop. A few minutes before the clock strikes the hour the board and the Secretary of Agriculture sign the report and take it to the corridor near the telegraph room. Several copies of the report sheets are laid, face down, on a table. Eight or ten telegraph operators and news reporters are ready for

the stroke of the clock, and with the word they seize the papers and rush to the telegraph and telephone instruments. In a single minute the wires have flashed the leading figures to New York, Chicago, New Orleans and other great markets.

Now contrast this procedure with what takes place at the market end of the wire. There, in the trading pit, hundreds of men watch the clock, and when the telegraphic figures giving the estimates of the acreage, or yield, or total product, of a given crop are shouted out, or are placed on the blackboard, each dealer forms a judgment as to whether to bid higher or lower on the products affected by the reports. The conclusion of the crop-reporting board, taken in the most serene calmness of a quiet room in a building surrounded by a beautiful park in the National Capital, suddenly, on the wings of lightning, flashes into the bedlam-like mart where fortunes are made or lost in a moment. The selling pit has a spasm and in a few moments the price of the commodity has risen or fallen to a fairly stable equilibrium at a point warranted by the newly-reported facts as to crop conditions.

World Acreages

If the reports thus sent to the great market included the entire world acreage the effect would be still more interesting. At present individuals and firms, and groups of operators cooperating privately, secure reports of crops from other countries and also reports of products from previous crops in store together with the prospective demand. There is thus much private information utilized at the great market centers in arriving at the daily price current. And too often the speculating public is led to believe, or allowed to believe, that the partial facts which are made public from these private sources tell the whole truth when they may not. And it is at least widely believed that those dealers who have the more complete and accurate information sometimes proceed first to buy many margins in option and future deals and follow this movement by publishing their privately secured facts which will turn the margins in their favor.

The public has no special concern as to which of two groups of trained speculators beats the other by securing first and taking advantage of the facts of changed conditions. The public is, however, deeply concerned with the practices of these boards when they entice men of small means who are without knowledge of the

changed conditions of crops to take risks in a nearly "sure thing" game with speculation in wheat or cotton, just as it was concerned with the Louisiana lottery. The public is also concerned to avoid unnecessary fluctuation in prices, which greatly hampers manufacture and often seriously affects the interests of producers and consumers and also of dealers in actual products. There exists a strong consensus of opinion against market organizations for excessive dealing in options and futures, and if a plan were devised which would furnish an efficient substitute for the marketing machinery which has there grown up entwined with the option and future features, such new organization would be generally demanded. Were a really efficient scheme devised for giving great fluidity to the markets and to the transfer of credits, the people would demand of Congress that it be installed by a restrictive and constructive federal law. There are many intelligent men who believe that if all markets for dealing in options and futures were placed under restrictions so stringent as to prohibit the gambling as now carried out, business would adjust itself to the change very readily.

One of the constructive needs is world area statistics. The new International Institute of Agriculture at Rome, recently organized, has, as one of its three departments, a bureau of agricultural statistics, which collects world area data and supplies these facts to the forty-nine adhering countries. It thus gives basic statistics of acreages, conditions and total products as assembled at Rome, Italy. This information is assembled in a rather open way and is published as soon as it is tabulated and made available. At present its information is rather old when received by the markets, but it is possible that eventually not only monthly reports will be issued during the season of growth of a given crop, but that throughout the month facts of special changes arising from storms, droughts or other quickly operating causes may be assembled and reported at once when they have occurred. That Institute collects available facts through agencies already organized in the different countries; and it is successfully encouraging the equipment of statistical crop-reporting bureaus in all countries.

Two methods of procedure have been suggested for assembling and giving out information from Rome. Under the first method no especial effort will be made at keeping the facts in confidence while assembling them. Each country will compile its own statistics,

publishing them when it pleases and sending the general results to Rome. The Institute will compile these facts for the world areas of each crop and publish them. Under this plan it will be able gradually to improve the statistical organizations throughout the world. Better basic census statistics of actual acreages and quantities grown in census years, preferably once in five years, will be made by the adhering nations, and more accurate compilations of current prices will be made. Annual estimates of acreages and seasonal time of planting, growth and conditions for harvesting will be based on better and more numerous data. Markets will have better annual data and better ten-year averages as bases for comparison to determine the probable prices the estimated crops of a given year should and will command in the markets. Gradually the Institute can extend its records, in many cases based on actual census-like counts, to amounts of each product consumed in the respective countries, the amounts in transit and in store, and may also estimate the probable demand or consumption in each country. Thus the figures of the Institute may more generally supplant the figures of non-public agencies and thus come to be the recognized bases for nearly all comparisons and estimates of acreages, yields per acre, quantities and quality of products, also of demand and of prospective demand, and thus serve in a more potent way in providing stability of average daily current prices. Even under this plan there will be some holding of final figures in confidence until they are simultaneously published to all agencies desiring them.

The second method contemplates the assembling of data in confidence, not with great secrecy, but without allowing publicity of data until they can be open to the use simultaneously of all parties who desire them as is now done by the United States Department of Agriculture. Under this plan an organization somewhat more formal than that now in use by the United States Department of Agriculture has been suggested. Using the political divisions of this country to serve in stating the scheme, the plan suggested is something as follows: Have in each township a man who will spend a day once a month, and an additional day on occasion of special changes of crops due to storm, drought, etc., in gaining knowledge of acreages, conditions of growth, yield and quality of crops, and number of live stock and their condition. Have him report in writing to a district agent at a central mailing point where are received

township reports from a few score of townships. Let this district agent compile the reports and wire totals to the state agent, who would compile the district reports into state averages to be wired to Washington. The national crop-reporting board can then compile the state reports into national averages and cable the totals to Rome.

Possibly machines could be devised for use by the district and state agents, and by the national bureau in compiling weighted averages. If the closing compilations at least could thus be done by calculating machines, it might give even greater assurance both of accuracy and that all the figures be kept in confidence. Or experience may prove that the present crop-reporting board plan is not only safe but better adapted to giving accuracy to the estimates which are sent by a nation to the board at Rome. At least, experiments should be undertaken to find that method which would be both efficient in getting accurate and frequent reports and economical for each country.

There seems to be no difficulty in keeping telegrams in confidence under telegraphic keys such as the one devised for use by the United States Crop-Reporting Board; and the amount of telegraphing suggested is not so large as to be a serious item of expense. The cost of the time of the local estimating agents is the most serious financial matter. The lack of organization in some countries and the difficulty at first of securing dependable local reporters are thought to be the large difficulties. Traveling agents to check up reports so as to prevent biased statements, and to educate district and state agents, as proven by the experience of the United States Department of Agriculture, do much to give accuracy to the primary estimates. The quinquennial census, compiled for township units, checks up township reporters, serving both to give them bases for their estimates and also to put the accuracy of their work to the test, that they may feel the responsibility of giving correct statements of actual fact.

With really comprehensive and efficient crop reports of the world areas of a given crop, the great markets should be able to maintain fairly steady prices, fluctuating only as the facts of production and consumption warrant. Such reports, issued by an agency which all parties trust as to its fairness and efficiency, would be the main factors in determining prices. These reports, together with a simple law, probably restricting rather than abolishing the

amount of dealing in options and futures to adequately meet all requirements of hedging, might give nearly ideal market conditions. On the other hand, abolishing deals in options and futures might prove the better, but either alternative would seem preferable to the overwrought system in which gambling is mixed with business in a most unbusinesslike manner. If laws prohibiting dealing in margins are not practical in a single country, world government in market matters may create conditions under which world law along this line may be effective. Our markets are world wide and our statistical service is rapidly becoming world wide.

A weak investigation which does not enter into the problem in the most virile and comprehensive way, by failing of results, might help to entrench the dominating philosophy of the nearly unrestricted gaming pit. Possibly some plan of a national or international commission may be devised which will spend time enough, energy enough, scientific research enough and business sense enough to comprehend the essential factors and to advise either that we continue the present system; that some modified form of "future" price making be adopted, or that dealing in options and futures be abolished. In any event the next step needed would seem to be a most efficient investigation.

It is possible, and even probable, that a broader public scheme for quickly gathering and dispatching crop statistics and facts concerning market needs would serve producers, dealers in and consumers of fruits and vegetables as well as those interested in the non-perishable products. In case of these latter products, no very comprehensive system of statistics has been devised; but even here the public gathering of statistics might prove to be very useful to supplement the very awkward and inefficient system of information now served by private agencies to the growers on the one hand and to the markets on the other.

Under the second plan, outlined above, of assembling crop reports, the township agents could easily include reports on such perishable crops as strawberries, peaches and canteloupes. The telephone and telegraph could be used to assemble at once the estimates of amounts of ripening crops, and to give the information to distant markets. This information could also go at once to the railways to guide them in supplying a sufficient number of refrigerator cars. Associations of producers could also be supplied with information

as to the markets most needing shipments, as gathered by paid agents in those markets, that they might bill their car lots to the most favorable markets or might deflect cars already part way on their journey, thus avoiding glutted markets and supplying all consumers in the most equitable manner.

Things world wide in their needs are not easily organized in the public interest. World peace is more needed on account of markets than most people imagine. World government has already been inaugurated. The International Institute of Agriculture at Rome is the first beginnings of an economic department. Even if its protocol or constitution need to be enlarged for that purpose, would not that Institute be the best auspices under which a commission could study world trade? In the meantime, would not national commissions to study international trade practices be a good preliminary step?

BOOK DEPARTMENT

NOTES

D'ANETHAN, BARONESS ALBERT. *Fourteen Years of Diplomatic Life in Japan*. Pp. 471. Price, \$4.25. New York: McBride, Nast & Co., 1912.

BACON, E. M., and WYMAN, M. *Direct Elections and Law Making by Popular Vote*. Pp. iv, 167. Price, \$1.00. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1912.

Short manuals of this sort reach a number of people who would not read a larger book. Fifty pages are devoted to discussing the contrast in theory and working between the Swiss, the early American, and the later American forms of the initiative and referendum. Unfortunately almost one-half of this space is devoted to general discussion of development which is out of place in a book of such summary character. The rest of this chapter is almost entirely drawn from Oberholtzer's volume on "The Initiative and Referendum in America." The outline of the spread of direct legislation is clearly drawn.

The second and third chapters covering half the book are devoted to the recall and commission government for cities, material not indicated by the title. The chapter on the recall is summarized from Oberholtzer and Beard and Shultz's "Documents on the State-Wide Initiative, Referendum and Recall." The discussion of commission government is too brief to leave even an outline in the reader's mind. The last chapter and the only one which has claim to originality discusses the degree to which preferential voting has been adopted in America and the changes now urged by advanced reformers. In the appendix are given some fac-similes of referendum ballots.

Those who wish a brief review of the field covered will find this book useful. For the student who wishes a thorough account, the volume offers little that is not easily available in standard authorities.

BALCH, WILLIAM M. *Christianity and the Labor Movement*. Pp. 108. Price, \$1.00. Boston: Sherman, French & Co., 1912.

We are fond of saying—we of the Church—that labor does not understand the Church, but we are not quite so ready to admit, as certainly we should, that the Church does not understand labor; that there is, in short, mutual misunderstanding.

It may be seriously questioned whether labor's unfamiliarity with the Church is as great as is the ignorance of the Church regarding labor. The pronouncement four years ago of the Federal Council of Churches of Christ on the Church and modern industry was perhaps the very first notable attempt, by the Church, to set forth the common ground and interdependence of organized religion and organized labor, and to suggest, rather vaguely, a joint program for advance. But catholic as was that pronouncement and sweeping as were its terms as to the breadth of the Church's sympathy, yet it presented little, if any, of the viewpoint of organized labor; in fact, it was not purposed so to do.

Dr. Balch in his volume renders a distinct service. Comprehensively, yet concisely; truthfully, yet sympathetically; with adequacy of statement, yet with economy of language, he introduces labor to the Church—and he grounds the roots of labor in the fundamentals of religion. Conversely, the Church is made known to labor.

The book is in the best sense practical. The realm of the stars is not invaded to garment thought, yet there is felicity of expression throughout. It is a working man's book, whether the workman be of the study, the shop or the office; and it has a direct appeal to all men who are really interested in the vital problems of these days of social and religious readjustment.

BATESON, W. *Biological Fact and the Structure of Society*. Pp. 34. Price, 35 cents. New York: Oxford University Press, 1912.

This booklet is the Herbert Spencer lecture delivered at The Examination Schools at Oxford February 28, 1912, and is an attempt to evaluate the biological aspects of civilization. The argument is the enlargement of the general proposition that environmental selection of adaptable variations of physiological and psychological types is that upon which all permanent and stable institutions are founded. It is therefore inevitable that the right and safe direction of social progress must be based upon biological observation and experiment. Students of eugenics will find the article stimulating and suggestive.

BEROLZHEIMER, FRITZ. *The World's Legal Philosophies*. Pp. liv, 490. Boston: Boston Book Company, 1912.

This volume is the second in the Modern Legal Philosophy Series edited by a committee of the Association of American Law Schools. The series was instituted in response to the seeming need of the legal profession, for instruction in "the technic of legal analysis and legal science in general." A year was spent in collecting material by the committee of five. Suggestion and advice were given by many masters in leading foreign universities. The result is unquestionably a collection of unique character and value. The present volume is a comprehensive, historical review of world philosophies, treated from the special viewpoint of juristic thought. No significant theoretical tendency is neglected from that revealed in the earliest civilization of the Orient to the generalizations of recent economic, sociological and general evolutionary philosophers and schools. The treatment is somewhat insular in its emphasis on German thought; but this is so catholic and so representative of varying tendencies that one would have great difficulty in finding a better outline history of thought than is to be found here. There is little effort at interpretation; and the almost endless array of topics treated gives rise to a tantalizing brevity of treatment in individual instances. But, after all, these are only defects of a comprehensiveness that will stimulate readers to deeper research.

BLOUNT, J. H. *The American Occupation of the Philippines*. Pp. xix, 664. Price, \$4.00. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1912.

BOWMAN, I. *Forest Physiography*. Pp. xxii, 759. Price, \$5.00. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

BUTLER, NICHOLAS MURRAY. *The International Mind*. Pp. 121. Price, 75 cents. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1912.

The five addresses comprised within this book are devoted to the task of teaching our American people to "think internationally," even as Washington, Hamilton and their colleagues taught their contemporaries to "think continentally;" and as continental thinking was a prerequisite to the formation of the American Union, so international thinking is a prerequisite to the development of a family of nations in which an international judiciary shall take the place of warfare and national armaments in the settlement of disputes between nations.

This international thinking is looked to as the basis of an international public opinion which will act as the chief power, moral or physical, in the enforcement of international justice; and it is looked to, also, as the basis of a rational frame of mind which will put an end to the hysterical, emotional insanity which has been causing national armaments to increase by leaps and bounds.

The need for this international mind is illustrated in these lectures by references to the Anglo-German panic of recent months, and to sundry other ludicrous, or tragic international phenomena; the chief burden of teaching it to the world, by precept and example, is laid upon the shoulders of the United States of America: *noblesse oblige*; and its potency in putting an end to the world-old scourge of warfare is argued with all the luminous cogency for which the eloquent author of the addresses is so justly famous.

CLARK, J. B., and JOHN M. *The Control of Trusts*. Pp. ix, 202. Price, \$1.00. New York: Macmillan Company, 1912.

The revised edition of Professor Clark's "Control of Trusts" is in the estimation of the reviewer a very considerable improvement over the earlier volume. Barring chapter iii, which deals principally with tariff revision, and chapter iv, devoted in large measure to railway regulation, the volume contains much that deserves careful consideration by those studying trust regulation. The greater portions of the two chapters just mentioned are unnecessary and add little or nothing to the really valuable suggestions that are contained in other parts of the book.

Professor Clark desires to prevent the crushing of efficient competitors by the trusts (chap. v). He has specified only two of the methods used, *i. e.*, local price cutting and factors' agreements. The fact that these are only two devices out of many and that the author has taken no cognizance of the effect of the Miles Medical Company decision upon the factor's agreement, does not detract from the soundness of the general conclusion that if we are to have any competition these methods must be eliminated.

The most important chapter is the seventh on Constructive Competition. Here the argument is against the legalizing of pools and agreements, price fixing and other steps involving a recognition of monopoly as the guiding business principle. Several constructive suggestions are also offered, among which the reviewer found most interesting that permitting the holding company to hold stocks for investment only (pp. 150-51). It is felt that Professor Clark's condemnation of the oil, tobacco and powder dissolutions is premature, while the necessity of his proposed commission (p. 175) is seriously questioned. The volume is a strong brief for competition.

CLOPPER, EDWARD N. *Child Labor in City Streets*. Pp. ix, 280. Price, \$1.25. New York: Macmillan Company, 1912.

The author feels after an earnest and sufficient study of the question, that child labor in the city streets should not only be regulated but should be absolutely forbidden. After a discussion of the general problem, and investigation of the various types of street traders, the effect of street work on the children engaged in it and the failure of the attempts to regulate the evil, he reaches the conclusion that absolute prohibition is necessary. The author feels that no real good can result from the continuation of this form of child labor as great harm results to the child. The practicability of having older persons sell newspapers and deliver messages is carefully considered and this solution of the question appears advisable. "Social workers have returned a true bill against street work by children. What will the verdict of the people be?" (p. 158). The material of the subject of street trading has been covered and the book contains copious extracts from the reports of investigations and from the opinions of child labor experts. The bibliography is complete. The appendices contain copies of the best laws that have been enacted and copies of badges and forms that are being used. The book should become a valuable handbook for all who are interested in the question of child labor and should help remedy the unsatisfactory conditions with which it deals.

COMMISSION OF CONSERVATION, CANADA. *Sea Fisheries of Eastern Canada*. Pp. 212. Ottawa: Mortimer Company, 1912.

The Committee on Fisheries, Game and Fur-Bearing Animals of the Canadian Commission on Conservation has published this very valuable and interesting volume of papers and discussions, treating of Canada's fisheries, as the proceedings of a meeting in Ottawa, June 4 and 5, 1912. Maps and charts of the areas of location and the annual productions are distributed throughout the volume. While it seems that the fisheries show a marked decline during the last twenty years, the work of the conservation commission will, it is hoped, find the means not only to arrest this decline, but to assure a rapid and continued development from year to year.

COMMITTEE OF THE CITY CLUB OF CHICAGO. *A Report on Vocational Training in Chicago and in Other Cities*. Pp. xiii, 315. Price, \$1.50. Chicago: City Club, 1912.

The City Club of Chicago has rendered a signal service in this excellent compilation of material on "applied education." The tendency toward vocational training should receive a great impetus from the sane constructive recommendations which the committee of the City Club has outlined in such great detail. Although extremely complex, these recommendations may be summarized as (1) the establishment of a differentiated curriculum in the seventh and eighth years; (2) a vocational school replacing the present seventh and eighth years which children may enter at the age of thirteen; (3) an industrial school which over-age children may enter at twelve; (4) a highly differentiated high school system consisting of general technical, commercial, industrial and trade courses—the trade courses open to those who have selected the vocational school instead of the seventh and eighth years of the regular course; (5) day continuation classes which children may enter at fourteen; (6) apprenticeship schools which children

may enter at sixteen. All of these suggestions are intended to supplement the regular course of study at present existing in the schools. The committee has prepared a careful diagram, showing the method by which these various departments will be articulated. The report also includes a careful analysis of industrial and trade education under both public and private auspices in other cities. The whole work is worthy of the careful perusal of all persons intimately connected with the public educational system.

DAVIS, B. M. *Agricultural Education in the Public Schools*. Pp. vii, 163. Price, \$1.00. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1912.

DEALEY, J. Q. *The Family in its Sociological Aspects*. Pp. iv, 137. Price, 75 cents. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1912.

This little volume is a sane and scientific treatment of the family. Its wide reading would serve admirably to counteract the alarmist views so prevalent in our day regarding the subject. It is neither comprehensive nor adequate as a treatment of the subject for the student who desires to obtain a thorough-going knowledge, but for the laymen, for whom essentially it is written, it is sufficient to demonstrate that the family is a fundamental social institution, and while subject to certain changes in ideals because of modern conditions, is in no danger whatever of being seriously affected. One finishes the reading of these pages with a wholesome optimism in regard to the future of the family.

DEPLOIGE, S. *Le Conflit de la Morale et de la Sociologie* (2d ed.). Pp. xvi, 424. Price, 7.50 fr. Paris: F. Alcan, 1912.

DEWEY, D. R. *Financial History of the United States*. Pp. xxxvii, 544. Price, \$2.00. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1912.

The cordial reception with which earlier editions of this standard work were received is in itself sufficient evidence of its value. This edition is the fourth revision the third one having appeared in 1907. A chapter entitled "Financiering under Expansion" has been added to bring the narrative down to date. One of the most valuable features of the volume is "Suggestions for Students, Teachers and Readers" and this has been made even more helpful by the addition of new titles and references.

DILLA, HARRIETTE M. *The Politics of Michigan*. Pp. 258. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1912.

The work traces faithfully national political issues within the state in so far as their fortunes can be arrived at from a study of the *Congressional Globe*, party conventions and platforms, election statistics, news items and editorial opinions. Party leaders stand out clearly in their relation to these issues. State issues are carefully, though briefly, treated. The student of state politics will not find an adequate or unified treatment of state history, but he will find much helpful work critically done, an advantage not afforded by most other histories of the state. For the most part citations to sources are adequate. Occasionally, statements are found without indication of sources. Three or four newspapers are sometimes regarded as representative of the Democratic party, and the *Detroit Free Press* is cited to prove a statement made of the entire party. The bibliography seems to have stated the available sources and to have indicated their value for the matter in hand.

DOTY, ALVAH H. *The Mosquito, Its Relation to Disease and Its Extermination.*

Pp. 79. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1912.

The author has rendered a real service to the public health movement by the popularizing of the scientific knowledge of the means of transmitting malaria and yellow fever through the bite of the mosquito. As long as these little pests were regarded merely as sources of discomfort and annoyance they could be endured but now that they are known to be disease carriers, they must be destroyed. This little volume by its identification of the dangerous varieties and its explanation of the means of their extermination has revealed clearly our social responsibility. The elimination of these infectious diseases is now a public duty.

FAGAN, JAMES O. *The Autobiography of an Individualist.* Pp. 290. Price, \$1.25. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1912.

Despite the title, this book is in large part a discussion of railroad problems. Starting with his autobiography, the author devotes three chapters to his exciting experiences in Scotland, South America and Africa. He then leaves his plot and devotes the rest of the book to criticism of present tendencies in industrial management. Much of the material used has been drawn from previous writings of the author.

After severely criticising present conditions, the conclusion is reached that only through individualism and the removal of all artificial restraint will improvement be secured. The labor unions in particular are sharply criticised. They are accused of forcing the workingman to sink his industrial personality and become a mere automaton. The union is the main opponent of efficiency, says the author. Regulation of labor organizations is ardently advocated. Democracy must "quietly but firmly place a restraining hand on all organized labor, and in so doing it will give millions of other toilers a greater measure of social and industrial justice."

Though no attempt at scientific treatment is made, the book is readable and throws an interesting light on many present-day problems.

FLOY, HENRY. *Valuation of Public Utility Properties.* Pp. viii, 390. Price, \$5.00. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1912.

FOELSKE, H. E. *The Practice of Democracy—Socialism vs. Individualism.* Pp. 73. Milwaukee: C. N. Caspar Company, 1912.

HIGBY, C. D. *The Government of Pennsylvania and the Nation.* Pp. vi, 266. Price, 70 cents. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1912.

The author's aim, as set forth in the preface, to place before the students in our schools a description of the whole of our government—the part conducted by the state, and the part administered by the nation—has been realized in the completion of this little book on "The Government of Pennsylvania and the Nation." The first part of the book takes up the local districts, counties and cities of Pennsylvania, the powers and duties of each officer thereunder being clearly defined. The next few chapters deal primarily with the state, and its legislative, executive and judicial departments. The remainder of the work is devoted to the national government, and this part lacks none of the illuminat-

ing information characteristic of the preceding portions. In the appendix are the constitutions of Pennsylvania and the United States.

KEITH, A. B. *Responsible Government in the Dominions*. Pp. lxxiv, 1670. Price, \$12.75. New York: Oxford University Press, 1912.

LOWRY, E. B., and LAMBERT, R. J. *Himself*. Pp. 216. Price, \$1.00. Chicago: Forbes & Co., 1912.

This is an admirable presentation. The advocate or teacher of sex hygiene could find no more serviceable summary of vital facts. The reading of such a book could not but lead to a higher practical morality.

MARTIN, G. W. (Ed.). *Collections of Kansas State Historical Society, 1911-12*. 12th vol. Pp. xxxii, 569. Topeka: State Printing Office, 1912.

MORSE, EDWIN W. *Causes and Effects in American History*. Pp. xxvi, 302. Price, \$1.25. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1912.

To tell "the story of the origin and development of the nation" in two hundred and ninety small octavo pages is Mr. Morse's task. He believes that details have obscured our history and that the important thing is to bring "economic and intellectual influences" into sharp relief. Emphasis is placed not on political evolution, but upon the important parts which intellectual and religious freedom, industrial and commercial activity and even literature and the fine arts have played in shaping the life of the people. For a book which is evidently intended for readers interested primarily in problems of the present day the devotion of one-half the space to the period before 1812 seems unfortunate. The chapters are interestingly written but of necessity are little more than snap-shots of phases of our national life.

MYERS, A. C. (Ed.). *Narratives of Early Pennsylvania, West New Jersey and Delaware, 1630-1707*. Pp. xiv, 476. Price, \$3.00. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons, 1912.

OGBURN, WM. F. *Progress and Uniformity in Child Labor Legislation*. Pp. 215. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1912.

This is an interesting attempt to apply statistical methods to the field of comparative legislation. The author states that "the results of this inquiry are of importance to sociology in showing the possibilities of measuring social pressure by standard deviations and of interpreting their significance" (p. 23). "It is hoped that this subject will be of practical value, especially to legislators, who it is believed, can better frame their laws on child labor after a thorough knowledge of the status of child labor laws in the various states" (p. 18). The child labor laws from 1879-1909 are studied. Occupations, exemptions, age limits, hours of labor, educational requirements, working papers, and penalties and inspection are the headings under which the subject is treated. The ninety tables add much to the value of the text. The author decides from his historical study that there has been great progress in the past thirty years, especially in the raising of the age limit at which children may start work and the notable decrease in the number of hours that they are permitted to work. As a study in a new method of presenting social material, the work is of real value. It is almost impossible to keep the

material sufficiently up-to-date, to make it of use to legislators. This study does not attempt to analyze the laws passed during the last three years.

PARTRIDGE, G. E. *The Genetic Philosophy of Education*. Pp. xv, 401. Price, \$1.50. New York: Sturgis and Walton Company, 1912.

This book is a restatement of the views of President G. Stanley Hall, whose writings are in too scattered a form to be available to the general reader. It is a valuable addition to the literature of social psychology and education, written so clearly and simply that anyone can understand it. A real want is thus supplied in a way that can be heartily recommended. Dr. Hall is too important a man to be overlooked by workers in social science or education. Genetic education and dynamic economics are after all but two views of the same current changes.

PRATT, SERENO S. *The Work of Wall Street*. Pp. xxi, 440. Price, \$1.75. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1912.

This is a revision of the work published in 1903. Much old matter has been omitted and a considerable amount of new material inserted which considerably increases the size of the volume. Several entirely new chapters have been added and the report of the Hughes Commission has been added as an appendix. In all particulars the book has been thoroughly revised and brought down to date.

THE PRINCESS. *Traveller's Tales*. Pp. xii, 296. Price, \$2.00. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1912.

These "Traveller's Tales" are given in a series of letters by an American woman, telling of her journeyings in Belgium, Germany, England, Scotland and Wales. They are charmingly written with a noticeable lack of the mere long descriptions that usually characterize books of travel. Besides having a cultured mind well versed in the art, literature and history of the countries, she had, perhaps because of this, a deep appreciation of the meaning of what she saw and an understanding of the people. The book abounds in many stories and legends that make history live again.

Although the letters are in a way delightfully personal, they are hardly intimate enough to be addressed to a "Dearest Beloved" nor do "Your Most Devoted Princess" and other fanciful terms quite agree with the idea of the writer we get from the letters. The tales would have been better simply as accounts of her travels rather than as letters which too evidently were never written as such but are only a form of literary expression.

ROLLINS, MONTGOMERY. *Tables of Bond Values* (19th ed.). Boston: The Author, 1912.

ROSENAU, M. J. *The Milk Question*. Pp. xiv, 309. Price, \$2.00. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1912.

Among all modern problems few possess more various relations than the milk question. Dr. Rosenau has compiled the eight Harris Lectures delivered at Northwestern University so as to make a most satisfactory discussion of the milk question in its sanitary, chemical, dietetic, legal, hygienic, economic and social aspects. He has maintained an attitude of utmost fairness toward the farmer, the middleman, and the consumer. With broad vision he has presented a masterly, sane, constructive program for the solution of the various questions

connected with the main theme. The book is rich in facts, strong in demonstrations, and able in rational discussion. The final solution of the milk problem requires in his estimation the mutual cooperation of the farmer, the consumer, the middleman, the health officer, the transportation agent and the legislator. His views regarding pasteurization deserve particular attention at this time when pasteurized milk is receiving constant discussion. Inasmuch as the definition of pasteurization lacks completeness and misconceptions and confusion are rife, he advocates that all pasteurized milk should be properly labeled with a degree of heat, a period of time, and the date on which it was subjected to the process. He is an advocate of pasteurization and regards this as one part of the solution of the problem. In his estimation pasteurization makes no change in either the nourishment or the digestibility of the milk, but he does not believe that the process should be utilized for the purpose of milk preservation or for the purpose of redeeming dirty milk.

For the purpose of securing clean milk, inspection of the farm, the dairy, the transportation and places of retail sale are essential. To render milk safe from diseases, as tuberculosis, typhoid fever, diphtheria and the like, pasteurization is essential. The full solution of the milk question, therefore, requires inspection, supervision and pasteurization.

ROSS, E. A. *Changing America*. Pp. 236. Price, \$1.20. New York: Century Company, 1912.

This volume is made up of a series of addresses and articles interpretative of various phases of contemporary life. The last four chapters, on The Middle West, appeared in the *Century*. These afford a telling picture of the race stuff of which the middle west is made, of its democratic tendencies, its educational growth, its social and its cultural qualities. The earlier chapters are miscellaneous, ranging from such general themes as The Outlook for Plain Folk and The World-Wide Advance of Democracy to such specific topics as Women in Industry and The Increase of Divorce. All show the keenness of observation, the facility of expression and the aphoristic quality characteristic of Professor Ross's style and method.

SHELTON, W. A. *The Lakes-to-the-Gulf Deep Waterway*. Pp. x, 133. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1912.

The promoters of a new railroad, in order to secure capital from judicious investors, are compelled to furnish evidence of a prospective traffic sufficient to make the proposed enterprise a paying investment. Mr. Shelton's monograph is a challenge to the "promoters" of the Lakes-to-the-Gulf Deep Waterway to give similar proof that the investment of a large amount of public funds in their transportation scheme would be justified. A study of the statistics of the present traffic on the Mississippi River, of existing rail and water rates, and of the difficulties of navigation that would be encountered in the proposed waterway, lead him to the conclusion that from the standpoint of traffic at least, the enterprise would be a colossal failure.

SPEER, ROBERT E. *South American Problems*. Pp. xi, 270. Price, 75 cents. New York: Student Volunteer Movement, 1912.

Mr. Speer deals not with the political and economic problems of the southern

continent but, except in two brief introductory chapters, with problems of education and religion; in fact all but three chapters are devoted to a criticism of the policies of the Roman Catholic Church. The author holds the Church responsible for all South American shortcomings "by virtue of its claim of South America as a Roman Catholic continent" (p. 169). Protestant and Catholic churches in North America would not welcome the application of a similar test.

STODDART, W. H. B. *The Mind and Its Disorders* (2d Ed.). Pp. xvi, 518. Price, \$4.00. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Sons, 1912.

A neurological work well adapted to inform social workers interested in the care and treatment of the insane.

TODD, MABEL L. *Tripoli, the Mysterious*. Pp. xv, 214. Price, \$2.00. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co., 1912.

Because of the Turko-Italian war the subject Tripoli is timely. The conflict plays no important part in the book though the introduction gives a description of the first clash of arms. Mrs. Todd's object is rather to let us see how Tripoli lives and how it impresses the chance visitor. A touch of history is given in the chapter discussing our conflict with the Barbary powers in the early nineteenth century, but the chief attention is given to affairs of the present day. The country's inhabitants of many colors, the primitive occupations and more primitive schools, the consulates of the foreign powers, the ruins of the Roman occupation, the recent solar eclipses, the lives of the Tripolitan women, are all passed in review. The most interesting chapters of the book describe two Mohammedan weddings and a Jewish-Arab wedding, all marked by curious formalist ceremonies. No attempt is made to write a scientific treatise, but one who reads this book will find it an engaging account of the obvious features of north African life.

VERHOEFF, MARY. *The Kentucky Mountains—Transportation and Commerce, 1750-1911*. Pp. xiii, 208. Price, \$5.00. Louisville: John P. Morton & Co., Ltd.

WRETHAM, W. C. D., and C. D. *An Introduction to Eugenics*. Pp. viii, 66. Price, 35 cents. New York: Macmillan Company, 1912.

This little volume is calculated better to create popular interest in the subject of Eugenics than to serve as a scientific introduction. The first chapter is devoted to a brief history of the Eugenics movement with particular reference to the work of Galton and Mendel. Chapter two is devoted to a discussion of Racial Qualities which are most easily susceptible of examination in the light of modern theories of heredity, such as susceptibility to disease, the inheritance of mental defects and of ability. Methods and materials of research are treated in the third chapter with a brief discussion of results obtained. Chapter four, on The Construction of Society, lays special emphasis upon the biological element in the history of mankind and upon the effects of environment as a selective agency.

For readers unfamiliar with the material of the science there is much to stimulate interest and to create a desire for further inquiry. For those already interested the treatment will seem fragmentary and disconnected. The bibliography contained in the appendix is utterly insufficient to give any adequate knowledge of sources.

WHITIN, E. STAGG. *Penal Servitude*. Pp. xi, 162. Price, \$1.50. New York: National Committee on Prison Labor, 1912.

In this book the author has popularized the findings of the National Committee on Prison Labor. A report which would otherwise be read only by a narrow circle of specialists is thus made interesting and accessible to a wide group of readers. It is illustrated with photographs of prisons and of prison labor under a variety of conditions.

The material is organized in seven parts or general divisions as follows: I. The Economic Problem; II. The Political Problem; III. The Institution; IV. Employment; V. The Market; VI. The Educational Problems; VII. Methods of Reform.

The justification of the resolution of the committee "declaring itself opposed to the contract system of prison labor and to every other system which exploits his labor to the detriment of the prisoner" is shown by vivid pictures of conditions wherever exploiting systems exist. The reader is not wearied by citations of figures but is permitted to hear conversations and look into the institutions. It is an intensely human presentation. One is impressed as he reads with the lack of foresight and of genuine concern in the welfare of the prisoners. Even former prison reforms were directed chiefly toward the improvement of physical conditions. It is to the problems involved in "Penal Servitude," "the last surviving vestige of the old slave system" and its dehumanizing effects upon these unfortunate wards of the state, that the contents of the book is devoted and its message is indeed a valuable one.

WIHL, OSCAR M. *Electoral Reform*. Pp. 32. Price, 6d. London: P. S. King & Son, 1912.

WILCOX, D. F. *Government by All the People*. Pp. xi, 324. Price, \$1.50. New York: Macmillan Company, 1912.

REVIEWS

BRAITHWAITE, WILLIAM C. *The Beginnings of Quakerism*. Pp. xlv, 542. Price, \$4.00. New York: Macmillan Company, 1912.

This volume is one of a comprehensive series on the origin and growth of Quakerism, under the general editorship of Dr. Rufus M. Jones. After a penetrating introduction on the Quaker type of mystical religion, contributed by the general editor, the author opens his work with chapters on the Puritan Revolution and the early life of George Fox. The body of the book carries the history from the pioneer work of 1649 to the close of the Restoration year, 1660. Other volumes are announced to continue the relation.

There have been some good brief sketches of early Quakerism written recently, but the only work comparable to the present volume both in quality and comprehensiveness is that by William Sewell, published in Dutch in 1717 and in English five years later. Sewell's history was carefully compiled and is still useful. The advantages of Braithwaite's volume over it are the following: Somewhat more space than Sewell gave to the same period; a nearer freedom

from sectarian bias; a better perspective of Quaker and other history and hence a better background and truer proportions; a much fuller collection of source materials as a basis; the modern mechanical make-up of reference notes, bibliography, a full index, and helpful maps.

The bibliography should be fuller than it is. It contains a good description of manuscript materials but no description or classification of the vast amount of printed matter.

For the most part the author seems to have maintained a good degree of critical impartiality. If, however, his judgments of the fanatical outbreaks among early Friends seem almost too charitable at times, he at least gives frankly the necessary facts for the formation by the reader of an independent judgment. The wonder will grow upon most readers that this zealous movement, constantly bordering at the first on hysteria, should yet have developed the ballast needful to steady it at length and bring it to a great mission.

Another interesting fact is that George Fox, the founder, discovered great religious groups already prepared for his message and that many of them came bodily into the new Quaker movement. It is well known that the Commonwealth period in England was a swarming time for mystical sects, yet few have realized the wholesale way in which the early Quaker leaders gathered in these swarms. As a somewhat similar process took place in the American colonies it would seem that Friends have been successful largely as a "convincing" rather than as an "evangelizing" body. In the early days they reached people who were already intensely religious and merely won them to a certain type of religious thought. Perhaps this accounts partially for their decline in numbers when sectarian lines became more stable.

This volume is a real addition to the literature of religious history. It would seem to justify George Fox's prediction in his testamentary papers that "all the passages and travels and sufferings of Friends in the beginning of the spreading of Truth, which I have kept together, will make a fine history."

R. W. KELSEY.

Haverford, Pa.,

BRYCE, JAMES. *South America, Observations and Impressions*. Pp. 611. Price, \$2.50. New York: Macmillan Company, 1912.

The announcement that Mr. Bryce was writing a book on South America aroused the keenest interest amongst students of Latin-American affairs. The breadth of view and depth of insight with which he has treated questions of political and historical interest gave assurance that this would be a notable work. This expectation has been in large measure justified, although one cannot but feel some disappointment that the author has devoted so much of the volume to descriptive matter such as is to be found in so many books of travel dealing with South America. The first eleven chapters are of this nature. The concluding chapters dealing with *The Rise of New Nations*, *The Relations of Races in South America*, *The Two Americas*, and *the Relation of South America to Europe*, *The Conditions of Political Life in Spanish-American Republics* and *Some Reflections and Forecasts* are the really notable chapters of the work. The fact that in

a trip of four months the author was able to secure so thorough a grasp of Latin-American conditions is a tribute to his remarkable powers of observation.

Throughout the work the author takes a healthily optimistic view of the future of these republics. He does not close his eyes to the serious racial problems that confront them, and has no hesitancy in emphasizing their lack of preparation for democratic government. Mr. Bryce is one of the few writers on Latin-American affairs who has emphasized the influence of environmental conditions as distinct from racial antecedents. He shows that the distinction between Teutonic and Latin, which is usually used as a means of explaining the lack of capacity of the people of the Latin-American countries for self-government, has little or no meaning, and in reality furnishes no explanation of their present condition. No opportunity is lost to impress upon the reader the necessity of studying the colonial development of the Latin-American peoples and their history since emancipation to understand their present condition rather than to depend upon generalizations as to racial traits. Only through such a study can we hope to secure any real comprehension of the present conditions and possibilities of the people of these countries.

The author also points out the danger of attempting generalizations applicable to Latin-America as a whole. He shows clearly how diverse the national types are, and that these diversities are likely to increase rather than diminish. Each country demands separate treatment in much the same way as we would give separate treatment to Spain, Italy and France in dealing with any of the Latin peoples of Europe.

L. S. ROWE.

University of Pennsylvania.

Carola Woerishoffer, Her Life and Work. Bryn Mawr, Pa.: By the Class of 1907, Bryn Mawr College, 1912.

This little volume is a document of extraordinary human interest. It is the story, briefly told, of a young woman, rich, able, vigorous, a Bryn Mawr graduate, who, without the slightest consciousness of heroism, much less of martyrdom, literally gave her life for the cause of social justice. Brought up in an environment that was charged with the spirit of service and under the spell of family traditions of courageous achievement and fearless independence, Carola Woerishoffer was doubtless prepared in an unusual manner for the life she lived, but those who knew her well could never think of her merely as the product of outside forces. One of her distinguishing characteristics was her independence of conventionality. She abhorred sham. In everything she sought reality and she claimed the right to form her own opinions. In an unpretentious way and yet with firm resolution, she seems early to have formed the purpose of taking a share in the work of advancing the cause of the wage-workers. In college her courses were chosen with this purpose in view. Gifted with a keen mind, abounding health, and a zest for living, she threw herself with eagerness into whatever she undertook, whether it was study, athletics (in which she excelled), or later, social investigation.

Graduating from Bryn Mawr in 1907, Miss Woerishoffer offered herself to Greenwich House, a social settlement on the lower west side of New York. She came, she said, "to learn and to help." Rich as she was, she would have scorned the thought of obtaining recognition because of her wealth. She did not seek a prominent place in social work. She wanted to know conditions at first hand and then to find the place where she could make her life tell for the largest usefulness. It was this spirit that led her to work for thirteen weeks during a hot summer as an unskilled hand in public laundries. When it came to practical measures for the improvement of social conditions, her interest lay with those efforts that were aimed at causes, or that prepared the way for dealing radically with conditions. It was this that influenced her to come to the rescue of the Congestion Exhibit, when its success was imperilled by lack of funds. Her faith in trade unionism and her passion for justice were manifested when, during the shirtwaist makers' strike in New York she met the need of adequate real estate security for bail bonds, in order to prevent the commitment of hundreds of young girls to jail for indefinite periods. But she valued wealth only as a means of service. We are told that her joy was great when she was appointed to a position as investigator in the State Bureau of Industries and Immigration, at a salary of \$1,200. At last "she was worth something in her own right!"

It was while investigating labor camps in her official capacity that Miss Woerishoffer lost her life. Fatigued by days of strenuous work, she was driving her car along a slippery road, when the wheels skidded and the car went over an embankment. The next morning she died from the injuries she had received. The chief of the bureau, referring in her annual report to the work of this heroic young woman, says: "The state has had no enrolled soldier who has given his life more utterly in the field of battle than she in the cause in which she believed."

The little book under review is a collection of articles, including editorials from prominent journals and an account of Miss Woerishoffer's life published in the *American Magazine* by Ida Tarbell, together with addresses delivered at a memorial meeting at Greenwich House. It is published by the members of Miss Woerishoffer's class at Bryn Mawr. It would be well if this book could have a wider reading than is likely to be the case because of the manner of its publication. It is the story of a life which expressed what Miss Tarbell calls the Revolt of the Young Rich—"a questioning of the fortunes laid in their hands, a resentment at the chance for a life-fight of their own taken away, rising passion of pain and indignation at meaningless inequalities and sufferings." If it could be read by many young persons looking out upon life at the threshold of their careers it would help to give meaning and direction to the part they are to play.

GAYLORD S. WHITE.

New York.

CLEVELAND, F. A., and POWELL, F. W. *Railroad Finance*. Pp. xv, 463. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1912.

This book describes the method of financing railroads in the United States. The historic side of railway promotion and capitalization is ably and interestingly evolved in the first two chapters. The various aspects of financing are then

treated: finances of construction, equipment, maintenance and additions and betterments, operation, and management. Two chapters are devoted to the management and distribution of the surplus, and accounts and statistics. The remaining chapters deal with insolvency, receivership, reorganization, consolidation and over-capitalization.

The book is replete with illustrations of actual transactions. The chapter devoted to the accounting aspect of railroad finance contains the recent rulings of the Interstate Commerce Commission regarding the handling of the various accounts. This chapter would be more nearly complete and of more value to the investor and student, if it were explained how to read the balance sheet and the income accounts, and if illustrations of its application were inserted. The narration of abuses and extreme variations in the accounting systems and methods of the railroads in their earlier history is particularly interesting compared with the uniformity now practiced as required by law.

A splendid treatment of over-capitalization is given in the last chapter. Considerable has been written of the gross over-capitalization of the railroads, particularly in the early stages of railway development, but the authors probably state it correctly when they say: "The common experience has been to have inadequate capital for conducting and developing the business of transportation." There is undoubtedly but little, if any, stockwatering in the issue of new capital by the railroads at the present time, but in the past there was much. The authors explain the many ways by which it was accomplished. So many schemes were devised to meet varying conditions and circumstances that one cannot but admire the ingenuity of the early railroad financiers. At the close of the book an excellent bibliography of the subject is given.

No original theories or new ideas are promulgated in this book. It is rather a compilation of material with the non-essentials and the superfluous omitted. As a text book for college use it is excellent and those interested in corporation and railroad finance will find it profitable reading.

FRANK HENRY SCHRENK.

University of Pennsylvania.

CUTTING, R. FULTON. *The Church and Society*. Pp. ix, 225. Price, \$1.25. New York: Macmillan Company, 1912.

There is an excellent quotation in this book, which it is worth everyone's while to ponder on. "We hear much said," it goes, "about consistency of thought. In my opinion it is a monstrous humbug to call it a moral virtue, because all social progress is the result of changes of opinion." It seems to me the quotation correctly delineates two classes of people who are found to-day in our churches. The one class, to maintain consistency, are gripping on to old and worn-out doctrines and ideas the propagation of which in present society has no place. Then there is a class who are dropping the old ideas as useless or not adapted to the present and are trying to find in what way they can most fully embody the spiritual and ethical ideals of Christianity in present-day civilization. One of the most significant movements among our churches is the awakening of interest in social affairs. Many churches are beginning to grope around for a means to help

solve the problems of vice, corruption, child welfare, and the like. The present book, which embodies the Kennedy Lectures for 1912 in the New York School of Philanthropy, is an attempt to show how the Church can be, and is being, a force in social uplift. Mr. Cutting, after outlining Christianity's contributions to civilization, takes up in turn its relation to the public school, the police, the public health, the children and its possible influence in the formulation of public opinion. The book shows what has been done by churches in helping to solve these problems in some localities, and points the way in which other churches can accomplish the same results. He shows with great force that the situation is pregnant with possibilities for our churches. Their methods must be that of active and sympathetic cooperation with present agencies after a careful and dispassionate study of the facts. Put in Mr. Cutting's own words: "The Church with her vast opportunities for education has a major duty to fulfil. When she comes to appreciate that there are seasons when it is more Christian to use mothers' meetings for instruction in the care of infants than for expounding justification by faith, that Big Brothers may often be better church builders than 'child evangelists' and that 'pleasant Sunday evenings' for children may make more Christians than the study of catechisms, she will interpret 'suffer little children to come unto me' in 'our own tongue wherein we were born.'" The latter part of the book is devoted to a list of cases in which churches have actually contributed to the solution of social problems. The book as a whole, and this latter part in particular, will be an invaluable aid to any church organization or church worker who is interested in taking part in social welfare work.

BRUCE D. MUDGETT.

University of Pennsylvania.

ELLIS, HAVELOCK. *The Task of Social Hygiene*. Pp. xv, 414. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1912.

This latest book by Havelock Ellis adds another volume to the interesting literature that is to-day appearing on the subject of eugenics. To no small degree the importance of the book lies in the bringing into strong relief of the contrast between two distinct points of views,—that of eugenics with that of euthenics, or the relative importance of heredity and environment. If for no other reason the book is valuable for sanely recognizing a distinct and legitimate field of study for each of these sciences. Although temperate in his attitude toward each science, Ellis takes the position that in the evolution of a method in social hygiene, emphasis has been laid in turn upon sanitation, upon factory legislation and upon education, all of which in themselves have been incomplete; and that we are now forced to take up the final link in the series, puericulture, or, as it has lately been called, eugenics.

The first and last chapters in the book are among the very best, for they bring out this contrast excellently. Social hygiene is here held to include the study of both environment and heredity. The two chapters dealing with *The War against War* and *The Problem of an International Language* have, at best, only a very indirect connection with the subject of social hygiene, and it may well be wondered why they were included in the present book. Even less

connection does there seem to be between chapter vii on Religion and the Child and the new science of heredity which he wants to emphasize. Taken by itself the chapter is one of the most scathing and fundamental criticisms yet written on the education of the child before the age of puberty. The chapter on The Significance of a Falling Birth Rate is thoroughly representative of the modern viewpoint that quality is of more importance than quantity, and contains within the small space of sixty pages one of the best discussions that have appeared on the subject. It is one of the best things in the book.

The book should be in the library of anyone who wants to know the latest word in the great controversy of modern times concerning the relative influence of heredity and environment.

BRUCE D. MUDGETT.

University of Pennsylvania.

FLEMING, W. L. *General W. T. Sherman as College President*. Pp. 399. Price, \$5.00. Cleveland: Arthur H. Clark Company, 1912.

The reputation of General William Tecumseh Sherman cannot but be enhanced by the intimate revelation of himself contained in these letters, for, although written at a time when even prophecy of his future greatness was impossible, they still show the same character and convictions which appear to the present generation through his official reports and personal correspondence as general. He is the ideal superintendent of the new Louisiana State Military School, a tremendously hard worker, coolly intellectual, calm and dignified, stern in discipline, ever ready to repress insurrection among the cadets in any form, but a fair friend to all. When he leaves his post to side with the North in the great sectional struggle, the state officials of Louisiana treat him with every courtesy and pay him the highest compliments for the efficiency of his services to the state. In politics he is neutral, perhaps even slightly favoring the South on the slavery issue, so long as the overt act of secession has not been committed. He is sorry that his brother, John Sherman, as a member of Congress, had signed his name in approval of the famous "Helper" book, he begs him to renounce the irrepressible conflict ideas, and recommends concessions to the border states; although mildly suggesting some amelioration of the conditions of slavery in Louisiana, he still in general openly sympathizes with the southern position on this question. But secession introduces into the problem the new elements of lawlessness and anarchy, which to Sherman constitute a challenge to organized government to defend itself, and in the face of such a challenge he instinctively chooses the side of government. The spirit of disorder in 1860 was to Sherman the most portentous sign on the political horizon.

This reflects the attitude of the strictly military man, unbiased by politics. Although he visited Ohio during the exciting political contest of 1860, Sherman took no part in politics, refused to vote, and in general often expressed his distrust of the political leaders of the land.

Students of economic conditions will be interested in a statement of Braxton Bragg, in a letter to Sherman (p. 80), that the net profits of the former's plantation for 1859 were \$30,000 on a total investment of \$145,000.

Yale University.

EMERSON D. FITE.

GERSON, V., and DEARDORFF, NEVA R. *Studies in the History of English Commerce in the Tudor Period*. Pp. xi, 344. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1912.

The three studies in this volume are doctoral dissertations by students in the University of Pennsylvania. Two essays are concerned with the Muscovy Company: "The Organization and Early History of the Muscovy Company," by Dr. Gerson; "English Trading Expeditions into Asia under the Authority of the Muscovy Company (1557-1581)," by Dr. Vaughn. The third study is devoted to the Eastland Company; "English Trade in the Baltic during the Reign of Elizabeth," by Dr. Neva Ruth Deardorff. Research extended in each case to the English archives, but the records of the Muscovy Company were destroyed by the great fire of London and there are apparently few Mss. of substantial value that have not been printed. Miss Deardorff brings to her study new material from the Record Office which furnishes a complete account of negotiations by agents of the Eastland Company for trading rights at Elbing.

Dr. Gerson's study of the Muscovy Company is necessarily based on documents that have been in print for some years, so that there is little that is new in his narrative. In discussion, he raises the question of the proper classification of the company, and here further qualification is necessary. Evidence is adduced to support the contention that the company was really a joint-stock and not a regulated company. But Dr. Gerson considers only the organization of trade, and fails to recognize that conditions of admission to membership were equally, if not more, important. The organization of the company clearly involved some anomalies, and, in practice, it presented some features of each type so that no classification can be entirely satisfactory.

Dr. Vaughn has furnished an interesting and thoughtful account of the vain attempts to establish trade with Persia by way of Russia.

The study of the Eastland trade by Miss Deardorff is perhaps the most significant, as it deals with the reorganization of the Baltic trade. The character of the Baltic trade, the formation of the Eastland Company, and the establishment at Elbing are her topics. The treatment is suggestive throughout and adds an interesting chapter to the general history of the Baltic trade.

ABBOTT PAYSON USHER.

Cornell University.

GRICE, J. WATSON. *National and Local Finance*. Pp. xxiv, 404. Price, 10s. 6d. London: P. S. King & Son.

Struggles over financial control have always been the center of the long-continued contests for popular government, but the control over the details of expenditure is a problem the importance of which is often overlooked. Even if the general machinery of appropriations is controlled by the people, true popular government is not attained if the representatives are not able to exercise an effective check on extravagance and a rational direction of the lines in which the money appropriated shall be expended. Increasingly important too are the problems of financial control in their relation to local government. The growth of social experiments in the smaller units has given local finance an importance far beyond what it has ever had before. How to insure that the proper balance shall be

found between central and local governmental activities and how to exercise supervision of local finances without limiting too greatly local independence and initiative are capital though often unappreciated problems of modern nations. Mr. Grice gives us a review of the expedients adopted in England, France, Belgium and Prussia with the object of placing at our command the lessons of the experience through which these countries have passed.

France, Germany and Belgium have adopted what the author describes as the bureaucratic system by which local administration is chiefly in the hands of specialists responsible to the various executive departments of the central government. The local representative councils have narrowly limited functions and their interference with administration is exceptional. At the other extreme stands the United States where cities are, broadly speaking, autonomous in financial matters except as bound by constitutional limitations on debt. There is here no administrative hierarchy, no national or even state system in control of education, sanitation and communication. The result the author believes is "the anarchy of local autonomy."

England, since 1833, has followed a compromise policy. This has developed through the "grant in aid" which introduced the principle of supervision from above by inducement rather than by mandatory law. The author is apparently not aware that the use of this legislative expedient has already made marked progress in the United States under the various forms of "state aid" familiar to Americans. English experience, he maintains, shows this policy only partially successful and demonstrates the advantage of further extension of administrative supervision to insure that the amount of aid given shall be proportioned to the degree of efficiency obtained.

The author gives in the latter part of the book a discussion of the practice of dividing governmental services into two classes "beneficial" and "onerous." He shows how this theoretically perfect adjustment is confronted by great practical difficulties since almost no service falls exclusively within one class and therefore the degree of central supervision justified becomes a matter of degree only, depending upon the peculiar circumstances of the individual case.

The complex nature of Mr. Grice's subject matter makes his book hard reading. In addition there are occasional digressions into details and comparisons which destroy clearness of perspective but an understanding of the material discussed is so essential to good government that students of economics and politics will find this important book an unusual mine of needed information.

CHESTER LLOYD JONES.

University of Wisconsin.

HYDE, GRANT M. *Newspaper Reporting and Correspondence*. Pp. xi, 338. Price, \$1.50. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1912.

The author devotes his 338 pages almost exclusively to what is known in the newspaper world as "the story"—more particularly, to the "writing-up" of the material gathered by the reporter on his "beat" or "assignment." Only one short chapter is given to Gathering the News, the author evidently being of the belief that "a nose for news" is either present as a natural endowment "or

affliction" or can best be acquired by exercise. This gives his book at once a class-room air and something of the appearance of a considerable to-do about a small matter. One might think with some reason that a sharp young person with the disposition to do newspaper work might be relied upon to pick up the technique of writing out his material just as the author thinks he may be relied upon to learn the technique of news-gathering. But Mr. Hyde is evidently of another opinion, and as a result he has written in all, seventeen chapters, with two appendices, mainly concerning themselves with "stories," reports of speeches, court news, interviews, etc. He carries out his plan with great particularity and presents his studies and suggestions with force and clarity. The great shortcoming of the book, however, is that, while it proceeds from a seat of learning and authority of the highest rank, it scarcely says ten words either to offset what is deplorable (if not worse) in our newspaper methods, or, at least, to bring them under criticism. It contains next to nothing to promote in the student intelligent self-assertion; its standards of fitness are the standards of fitness in newspaper practice at the moment, both ethical and theoretical. This is scarcely teaching; it is mere marking time.

And throughout the 338 pages, not a single helpful word about first principles! In newspaperdom first principles (and last principles) are circulation, because without the honey of circulation the advertising fly is not to be caught. In that, and back of it, lies nine-tenths of the technique of newspaper-work. Mr. Hyde does not bring it out; and leaving it hidden, he leaves real help out of his book. Still it is only fair to re-affirm that what he does do by way of academically discussing the practice of the moment, he does well and painstakingly.

T. D. O'BOLGER.

University of Pennsylvania.

LEUBA, JAMES H. *A Psychological Study of Religion*. Pp. xiv, 371. Price, \$2.00. New York: Macmillan Company, 1912.

This psychology of religious life strives to reach "what is fundamental and essential in human nature" (p. ix). Religion is defined in the following way: "What belong exclusively to religion are not the impulses, the desires, and yearnings . . . but merely the conceptions themselves" (p. 8). "If the terms 'superhuman' and 'supernatural' have any relevancy in religion, it is merely with reference to the gods and their action on man, should they have an existence outside the mind of the believer" (p. 9). "Religion begins when the mystery has been given some solution, naive or critical, making possible practical relations with the 'ultimate.' . . . If men have 'lived by religion,' it is not because they have recognized the mystery, but rather because they have, in their uncritical purposive way, transcended the mystery, and have posited a solution of which they were able to make practical use" (p. 28). Thus, the author seems to find the value of religion to humanity not in its emotional inspirations, nor yet in its influence upon behavior, but in what is really a philosophy of the mysterious, though recognizing that, "the reason for the existence of religion is not the objective truth of its conceptions, but its biological value" (p. 53). No

doubt it has a biological value, if we admit with him, that the "religious life . . . includes the whole man" (p. 52); that "in its objective aspects, active religion consists . . . of attitudes, practices, rites, ceremonies, institutions; in its subjective aspect, it consists of desires, emotions, and ideas, instigative and accompanying these objective manifestations." If this is not the whole man, the remainder is a negligible quantity.

There is an attempt to show that magic and religion are entirely separate, neither developing out of the other; "religion is social and beneficial; magic is dominantly individual and often evil" (p. 176). Of course if the definitions are clearly drawn to start with, the phenomena will fit them; but the more important question which he treats too tersely, is whether this may not merely express two aspects of fundamentally like phenomena. He differs from Frazer, however, in holding magic to be something different from primitive science and not even closely related to it. The chapter on Morality and Religion touches a very rich ethnological field but it can scarcely be said that the author has made the most of it. He denies the right of theology to isolate itself from psychology and philosophy on the ground of its being immediate knowledge whose very presence in consciousness carries its own conviction of truth and thinks it as amenable to critical psychological analyses and estimates, as is any other phase of consciousness.

W. P. WALLIS.

University of Pennsylvania.

MUNROE, JAMES P. *New Demands in Education.* Pp. viii, 312. Price, \$1.25. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co., 1912.

This is an intelligent discussion of many of the current problems of American education. It regards boys and girls under an intelligent scheme of education as the nation's greatest resource. To realize such an Utopian condition, the author makes eight demands: small classes with more or less individual teaching, physical development and care for health, interesting and stimulating studies and teaching, the training of the senses, the development of strong character, social training, vocational guidance, and wide opportunities in the school for individual effort. He makes a plea for the development of individuality and initiative on the part of both teacher and pupil, and is especially bitter in his condemnation of the despotism of ignorant school boards. American education is aimless. It has lost its one-time definite aim, and the present broad, general, cultural idea lacks a real understanding of what education should be.

The public school exists to develop social and personal power. It is just as important for it to train boys and girls to play an important part in community life as it is to develop individual skill and intellectual acumen. Society demands of public school product, "health, character, honesty, truth telling, willingness to work, readiness to comprehend, quickness of adaptation, fertility of resource and vision. These results come not from set lessons, but from self-discipline, self-reliance and self-knowledge. These qualities the public school must develop."

The discussion of discipline is admirable. The day of the rod has passed and

in too many cases has left a coaxing, pampering, disgusting way of dealing with children. The profession of teaching has found it difficult to create a self-discipline "which will whip him soundly every time he disobeys wise laws which he is capable of understanding."

The author joins in the well-nigh universal criticism of the American high school. The blame, so the author thinks, rests upon the university which has commandeered it as a feeder and upon the public which has failed to grapple with the situation. The high school apes the university and fails to serve the evident needs of the community. It will fail until it becomes independent and is a powerful social force.

A. H. YODER.

Whitewater, Wis.

NITOE, INAZO. *The Japanese Nation: Its Land, Its People and Its Life. With Special Consideration of Its Relations with the United States.* Pp. xiv, 334. Price, \$1.50. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1912.

These eleven chapters based on lectures delivered during the past academic year at various American universities, from the Atlantic to the Pacific, aim to promote a just understanding of the attitude of Japan toward the United States. This laudable undertaking in behalf of international peace has now passed from the charge of the universities to that of the Carnegie Peace Endowment.

With discrimination coupled with wise and hopeful suggestion, are treated the character of the land and of the people, their history, religion and morals, the present economic and educational conditions of the country, and particularly its past and present relations with the United States. The chapters on Economic Conditions and on Japan as a Colonizer, appeal especially to readers of THE ANNALS.

The 4,223 islands which, according to the *Tribune Almanac*, compose the empire, are reduced by official statistics to 518, those only being counted whose circumference equals one *ri*, or two and a half miles. Their whole extent is less by some 10,000 square miles than that of the State of California, and only about fifteen per cent is arable, the country being so largely mountainous. "Yet from this limited area our peasants produce enough to feed and clothe themselves and the nation and to furnish more than one-half of the silk worn by American ladies" (p. 210). Agriculture engages 60 per cent of the people, and 70 per cent of this class own and work farms of less than two and a half acres. Twelve is "a very respectable holding," and twenty-five acres make the owner "a local magnate" (p. 212). "As for manufacturing and other industrial enterprises, I am glad to say these are growing steadily and on the whole sanely" (p. 222). As yet there is "an unfortunate absence of iron," "lack of skilled labor," and a "predominance of female labor;" "child labor is disproportionately large" (pp. 234-5). "Careful experiments in cotton mills have shown that 300 Japanese operatives are required where 200 English are sufficient and where 100 Americans do the same work. As yet, there seems to be no immediate fear of an industrial Yellow Peril!" (p. 224). "Though as many as 98 per cent of the children of school age (6 to 14 years) are actually attending schools, a considerable portion of these

do so just long enough to follow the letter of the compulsory education law" (pp. 224-5).

"The conditions of labor in the factories are far from satisfactory—in many of them they are positively disgraceful." Yet, "as the new law forbids the employment of children under nine in factories, and the working of women at nights, a starting point is provided for a better condition of things" (p. 224).

For a population half as large as that of the United States, yet penned up in limits no greater than those of the State of Colorado, colonization is a necessity. Emigration to Formosa, Yezo, Korea and Manchuria is encouraged by the government that restricts voluntarily emigration to the United States. The interesting account of Japanese success in controlling and improving refractory Formosa contrasts with the meagre notice of Japanese action in Korea and Manchuria. In regard to these latter, the author alleges foreign misrepresentation and deprecates premature criticism.

While the author of "Bushido," cannot be charged with any lack of admiration for what is distinctively Japanese, he shows himself in the book before us as indeed "shod with the preparation of the gospel of peace." In temperament, ability and education, and in intimate knowledge of western thought and of America in particular, no Japanese is better fitted to appeal to the judgment and good feeling of thinking Americans. If the Chauvinists of neither country can be expected to think and listen, the great majority of well-meaning people on both sides of the Pacific may find in this book ample ground for maintaining inviolate the cordial relations that have existed between the two countries ever since our Commodore Perry sailed up Yedo Bay.

WM. A. HOUGHTON.

Yonkers, N. Y.

PARKHURST, F. A. *Applied Methods of Scientific Management*. Pp. xii, 325.

Price, \$2.00. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1912; *Addresses and Discussions at the Conference on Scientific Management*, held October 12, 13 and 14, 1911. Pp. xi, 388. Price, \$2.50. Hanover, N. H.: Tuck School, Dartmouth College, 1912.

Since Frederick W. Taylor began his work in scientific management and efficiency, the output of literature upon these subjects has steadily increased. Two of the latest publications are Parkhurst's "Applied Methods of Scientific Management" and the Proceedings of the first conference of the Amos Tuck School of Administration and Finance of Dartmouth College.

The first of these volumes treats of the application of scientific methods in the case of the Ferracute Machine Company of Bridgeton, New Jersey. These methods are particularly adapted to a business employing one hundred people or more. In a general way the work resembles Arnold's "Factory Manager." But where Arnold in the space of his work examined in some detail the organization of several plants, Mr. Parkhurst has devoted an entire volume to the organization of one. As might therefore be anticipated, the work gives an exceedingly minute and thorough treatment of the methods of the company in question. The

portions of the volume that are devoted to "routing work through the shops, payment of labor," and "time studies" are especially interesting.

The book contains a lengthy appendix "Organization Record of the Ferracute Machine Company." This lays down exactly what the duties and responsibilities of each member of the organization are. It goes, therefore, without saying, that that company employs the Taylor and not the Emerson system.

The Tuck School Conference was divided into six sessions; the first devoted to Principles of Scientific Management; the second, to Scientific Management and the Laborer; the third, to Scientific Management and the Manager; the fourth, to the Applicability of Scientific Management in Certain Industries; the fifth, to Scientific Management and Government, and the sixth, to Phases of Scientific Management. Some of the leading specialists of the country in this field attended the conference, among them F. W. Taylor, Harrington Emerson and H. L. Gantt.

As in nearly all conferences, much was said that was elementary in character or that had little bearing upon the subject in hand. But it is fair to say that less of this was in evidence at the Tuck Conference than is usually the case. Several of the speeches were unusually interesting and informative, while some of the discussion developed many points that are not commonplaces to the students of the subject.

Both volumes it may be said, in conclusion, are interesting and valuable contributions to the extant literature on "Scientific Management."

WILLIAM S. STEVENS.

Columbia University.

REES, J. D. *Current Political Problems*. Pp. xi, 423. Price, \$1.40. New York: Longmans, Green & Co, 1912.

The "Current Political Problems" are those before the British public at the present time, but the real subject of the work is the attitude of the political parties towards these problems. The book is written primarily for the British voter, and assumes, with regard to most of the topics treated, a knowledge on the part of the reader, such as might be gained from the casual perusal of newspapers. The provisions of the Lloyd George budget and of the Declaration of London, for example, receive little explanation, while other topics less well-known or less recently the subject of general discussion, such as foreign affairs and education, are given more exposition. On the whole, however, the tone is distinctly argumentative, and, since the author frankly acknowledges inclinations "in the Unionist direction" (p. v), the book becomes mainly a justification for the attitude of the Unionist party. The author endeavors to remedy this one-sidedness by a summary statement at the end of each chapter of arguments both for and against the policies considered. These fairly deserve the author's claim of impartiality, though they can scarcely be regarded as systematic or thorough.

The contents cover so wide a range that it is impossible to give them an adequate survey here, but some of the more significant views may be noted. The keynote of the treatment of the army and navy is their inadequacy to protect the empire and also defend England from German attack. The chapters

on India, the colonies and foreign affairs are largely expository, but through them runs the note of opposition to the anti-imperial attitude of the Radical-Socialist-Labour group. This party is, in fact, the red rag throughout the book, and later socialism comes in for a chapter of condemnation to itself. On the constitutional question, the franchise, apportionment of representation, Irish home rule, education, disestablishment and taxation, the well-known Unionist views are fortified by argument, and an earnest plea for tariff reform is not omitted. With regard to social reform the author insists that the Unionist party should take a positive attitude, but discreetly leaves the reader to guess what the concrete policies should be. The book is of value, therefore, chiefly for its statement of the principles of the Unionist party as a member of the party sees them and for the summaries of certain contemporary political issues.

W. E. LUNT.

Cornell University.

VINEBERG, S. *Provincial and Local Taxation in Canada*. Pp. 171. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1912.

This contribution to our somewhat undeveloped stock of literature on fiscal affairs is not only timely but extremely valuable. In this epoch of increasing interest in taxation, especially in our American states and local governmental areas, it is necessary, at all times, to keep in touch with the practical experiences of other localities, especially when such localities have been more progressive and more independent than is the case in this country. Canadian experiences, of whatever nature, illustrate valuable lessons in statesmanship and local administration. The author of this contribution on the revenue problems of Canada has combined three very essential factors of analysis in his review. The historical background is clearly presented; the practical results of definite experiences are specifically shown; and in addition the author has given us the benefit of his own personal criticisms and suggestions. Though the latter factor may be subject to some disagreement in particular cases, its existence in this volume helps rather than hinders, for the reader is forced to give a more critical attention to the concrete subject matter. Another point of value is his very clear and lucid division of topics, thereby making it possible for the work to be used as a handbook of reference. In particular, his analysis of the failure of the personal property tax, the business assessment, and taxes on real estate are to be strongly commended. The absence of vague technicalities is a virtue in itself. The copious citations and the supplementary appendix help to emphasize the solid and scientific character of the investigation. Generally speaking, its chief merit would seem to lie in the fact that the author has apparently had few preconceived ideas in regard to the merits or demerits of any system or method, as theoretically applied. Each topic is analyzed on a basis of the natural and necessary relation between the social and economic conditions of the locality and the actual administration of the method cited. It would be well if more of the many monographs on taxation and kindred subjects could be as clearly and efficiently presented.

C. LINN SEILER.

University of Pennsylvania.

WINTER, NEVIN O. *Chile and Her People of To-day*. Pp. xii, 411. Price, \$3.00. Boston: L. C. Page & Co., 1912.

This book aims to give a comprehensive survey of what constitutes modern Chile. A great many topics, more or less diverse, demand attention, and the author apparently has found some trouble in weaving them together. There are many places where the discussion is decidedly choppy reading.

After an introductory chapter on the country as a whole, the author wedges in a chapter on the west coast of South America. The application of this matter to Chile and her people is not always obvious. Valparaiso, Santiago, the southern agricultural zone, Tierra del Fuego, the Andine Cordillera, the mineral zone of northern Chile, the people, the Araucanians, education and arts, transportation, religious influences, three chapters on history, and a summary of present conditions and future possibilities, are the heads under which the narrative is subdivided.

Mistakes and misleading statements occur everywhere. Examples may be cited. "Fine bays and harbors" (p. vi, preface) are certainly not conspicuous along the coast for 1,500 miles south of Arica. The rest of the coast is of little or no consequence anyway. "It is said that the foreign population (of Valparaiso) almost equals the natives in numbers" (p. 50). The latest census (1907) gives Valparaiso, natives 146,000; foreigners, 13,000. "Talca has plenty of rainfall" (p. 94). The irrigation ditches about Talca, and the meteorological records giving a mean annual rainfall of seventeen inches with an average of forty rainy days per year, do not support this statement. Constitucion is at the mouth of the Rio Maule, not the "River Talcahuano" (p. 103). It is very doubtful whether the primeval forest "extended along the coast as far as Valparaiso" (p. 115). A rainfall of sixteen inches yearly, and limited largely to the winter, will not support a forest in the latitude of Valparaiso. A glimpse of the lumber yards at the railroad stations from Pillanlelbun southward creates the impression that the "important lumber industry" is not "still awaiting development" (p. 116). The province of Cautin alone has two score sawmills. Chilean Patagonia can never "exceed in fertility and wealth the broad leagues of rich plain between the Andes and the Atlantic" (p. 119). The approximate southern limit of known nitrate lands is south of Taltal and not "near Antofagasta" (p. 181). The nitrate oficinas refine only a part of their iodine not "to keep up the price" (p. 184), but because the so-called iodine trust allots each oficina its annual share, and no more than this can be disposed of. The British is not the "most numerous nationality other than Spanish" (p. 208) that has entered Chile. The census of 1907 gives: Italians, 13,000; Germans, 10,700; British, 9,800. The gold peso has a fixed value of thirty-six cents United States currency (18d. English), not thirty-two cents as stated on p. 376.

Along with these mistakes and many others which can be similarly challenged, there is much of good in the book. But the person who does not know Chile can not sift out the bad, from which much misinformation and many false ideas about Chile are sure to be obtained. A very poor map and some mediocre illustrations do nothing to improve the quality of a book which seems to be suffering from hasty or careless preparation.

University of Chicago.

WALTER S. TOWER.

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